SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT

This report is presented in three parts. Part One consists of detailed synopses of the child care situation in thirteen countries. Each begins with a philosophy and history of child care in each country, followed by legislation (for example, on birth/adoption leave and extended child care leave) and child care legislation (i.e. the responsible body, child care overview and coverage). The programs available to school-aged children are presented in itemized form and includes the main characteristics of each (e.g. operator, location, time of operation, cost, funding, regulation, child care/parent communications, staff:child ratios, and so on). The programs available to older school-aged children are presented in the same manner.

Part Two presents a discussion of school-aged child care under four topics. The discussions are a synthesis of the information presented in Part One and the materials which are annotated in Part Two. The topics are 1) What is the role of regulation in the process of quality child care development? 2) How important is the economic factor in determining which child care program a parent will chose? 3) How transportable are the different child care programs to Canada? and 4) Research.

Part Three consists of an annotated bibliography of articles, books, government documents and reports, categorized by subject. The subject headings are 1) International 2) Policy, 3) Guidelines and How-To Manuals, 4) Special Needs, 5) Research Reviews, 6) Research Studies, Surveys and Needs Assessments, 7) Government Documents and Reports, 8) Unlicensed Care, and 9) Bibliographies and Literature Reviews. Wherever appropriate listings may appear in two categories.

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Bonita Rae Towell
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PREFACE

The need for school-aged child care has increased tremendously during this decade. As the sociology of the country has changed and more mothers have entered the workforce as either sole family supporters, second income earners or individuals wishing to fulfill personal and career aspirations, the number of children requiring out-of-home child care and the number of children left in self-care has risen. The number of children requiring affordable out-of-home care is taxing the resources at hand. Many children abandoned to self-care are experiencing negative effects. Some research has shown these children to be more prone to stress, loneliness, fear, anxiety, boredom, and antisocial behaviour. In other words, there is a need for some form(s) of supervised care for many of these children.

What was originally intended to be a review of the research literature on school-aged child care has evolved into something more and something less. Something less because very little research has been done in this area and something more because we believe we have taken what is available and used it to indicate the gaps which future researchers may wish to investigate. In addition, the situation internationally is presented in considerable detail with a discussion about the transportability of various programs to Canada.

Because the information presented in this report is based on a review of the literature, there is always the possibility that some of the data may be out of date or incomplete. Whenever possible, corrections were made as more recent information came to our attention through interviews with experts in the field. However, the fact remains that some of the information presented here will be dated. A second caveat arises from international comparisons where similarly labelled programs are quite different and vice versa. In order to facilitate the discussion, program types and definitions developed by Peter Moss have been adopted for this report. Deviations from his typology are noted.

This report is presented in three parts. Part I provides a detailed breakdown of the current states of affair regarding school-aged care in Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Italy, Federal Republic of Germany, German Democratic Republic, Czechoslovakia, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland, Norway and the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics.

Part II consists of a discussion centred on four topics pertinent to school-aged child care: regulation; a review of the research; the role of the economic factor in a parent's choice of child care program; and the transportability to Canada of the programs researched.

Part III is an annotated bibliography listing the materials utilized in Parts I and II as well as additional references which are useful for a full understanding of school-aged child care. The bibliography is divided into the following sections:

1) International
2) Guidelines and How-to Manuals
3) Special Needs
4) Research Reviews
5) Research Studies, Surveys and Needs Assessment
6) Government Documents and Reports
7) Policy
8) Unlicensed Care
9) Bibliographies and Literature Reviews

Whenever necessary, some items have been entered in more than one section of the bibliography. For the purpose of this report, the term school-aged child care is defined as children who are of statutory and non-statutory school age, meaning respectively children for whom it is legally compulsory to attend school and children who are eligible to attend school but who are not yet of compulsory school age. In Part I, in that part of the overview that describes the programs available, the programs described are divided into two general groups: programs for children who are younger than compulsory school age and programs for children who are older than compulsory school age.

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PART I

An Overview of International School-Aged Child Care

AN INTRODUCTION TO PART I, AN OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL CHILD CARE

Part I of this report reviews the literature collected on child care programs in thirteen countries. In order to present the information in a format that is consistent and accessible for reference, a common set of topics was selected. The program information was then organized by country. Within each country, the information on each program encountered was structured in terms of this topic set. In addition to this child care program information, information was included on the child care environment of the country.

Thus, Part I consists of overviews of child care in thirteen countries. Within the overview for each country are the following sections:

- a "mini" overview of child care for the school-aged children of that country;
- information on the general child care environment of the country; and
- a discussion of the various school-aged child care programs of the particular country by program and according to the common set of topics developed. The programs are generally divided into child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children. The dividing line used to define younger and older school-aged children is the age of compulsory schooling in that country.

As an additional note, in order to arrange the child care programs of the various countries in such a way that the programs of particular countries could be compared, it was necessary to establish some definition of program types. In reviewing the literature, one report uncovered was Moss' "Childcare and Equality of Opportunity - Consolidated Report to the European Commission, Final Version". In this report, Moss established a series of definitions for various general program types. For the purpose of this report, the use of these definitions was extrapolated from the countries to which Moss applied them, to the additional countries that we examined. Any misapplication of his definitions to the countries Sweden, Norway, Finland, United States, the Soviet Union, Canada, German Democratic Republic, Federal Republic of Germany, and Czechoslovakia is strictly the responsibility of the authors. Table 1 summarizes the school-aged child care programs by type of program.

Each program encountered in the review is labelled with one of Moss' program definitions. This "label" for program type is always in square brackets and always included for each program in three places: first, in the table of contents for each country; second, in the "mini" child care overview of the particular country; and third, in the "program name" heading each program section. The child care overview for each country.

Moss has defined his generic terms as follows:

Nurseries - Group care which admits children under the age of 2, and usually under 12 months: children stay until 3 years old or, in some cases 4, 5 or 6. Open at least 4 hours a day and usually 8 or more.

Preschool and school-age centre: Group care which takes children of school-age and below. Usually provides care for children under the age of 2. Open at least 4

TABLE 1

TYPES OF SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS BY COUNTRY

COUNTRY	NURSERY	PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGE CENTRE	ORGANIZED OTHER FAMILY CARE	OTHER FAMILY CAREGIVER	PLAYCENTRE
1. Czechoslavakia	-	-	-	-	-
2. Denmark	-	Integrerede Institutioner (0-14)	Formidlet Dagplege (0-11)	-	-
3. Federal Republic of Germany	-	-	-	Tagesmutter	-
4. Finland	-	-	-	Licensed Family Child Care	-
5. France	-	-	Creche Familiale (0-2)	Assistante Maternelle	-
6. German Democratic Republic	-	-	-	-	-
7. Italy	-	-	-	-	-
8. Norway	Barnehager (0-7)	-	Familale Barnehager (0-3)	-	-
9. Sweden	-	-	Communal Familjedaghem (0-12)	-	-
10. United Kingdom	Local Authority Day Nursery (0-4)	-	-	Childminder (0-5)	Playgroup (0-4)
11. United States	Child care centre (0-5)	Child care centre/ Before and After school care	-	Family Home Day Care	-
12. USSR	Creches (0-2)	-	-	-	-
13. Canada	Lic. child care centre (0-2)	Lic. child care centre (2-14)	Lic. Family Day Care Agencies	Lic. Family Day Homes/ Approved or Registered Day Homes	-

	PREPRIMARY SCHOOLING	PART-TIME CHILD CARE	KINDERGARTEN	EARLY PRIMARY SCHOOLING	OUTSIDE SCHOOL HOURS CARE		PRIMARY SCHOOL
					SCHOOL-BASED	CENTRE-BASED	
1.	Materska skola (3-6)	-	-	-	-	-	Zakladnil Skola (6-14)
2.	Barnehavelklasser (5-6)	-	Barnehaver (3-6)	-	Skolefritidshjem (5-9)	Fritidshjem (6-14)	Folkskole (7-10)
3.	Vorschulklass (5-6)	-	Kindergarten (2.5-6)	-	-	Horte (Kinderhorte) (6-12)	Primary School (6-10)
4.	Paivaloti	-	-	-	-	Licensed Child Care Centres	Peruskoula (7+)
5.	Ecole Maternelle/ Classes Enfantines (2.5-5)	Haltes-garderies (0-6)	Jardin d'Enfants (2-5)	-	Garderie	-	Primary School (Primary School) (6+)
6.	Kindergarten (3-6)	-	-	-	-	-	Allgemeinbildende Polytechnische (6-15)
7.	Scuola Materna (3-5)	-	-	-	Outside School Hours Care		Scuola Elementare (6+)
8.	-	-	Barnehagar (0-7)	Forskoleklassen (6)	-	-	Grunnskole (7-16)
9.	-	Deltidsgrupp (5-6)	Daghem (0-6)	-	-	Leisure Time Centres (7-12)	Primary School (7+)
10.	Nursery School/Class (2-5)	-	-	Reception Class (3-4)	Extended Hours School (2-5)	-	Primary School (5-10)
11.	-	Nursery School	Prekindergarten/ Kindergarten	Prekindergarten/ Kindergarten	Before and After School Care		Elementary School (6+)
12.	Detskii sad (3-7)	-	-	-	-	-	Nachal'naia Skola (7-10)
13.	-	Nursery School	Prekindergarten/ Kindergarten (3-5)	Prekindergarten/ Kindergarten (3-5)	Before and After School Care		Elementary School (6+)

hours a day and usually 8 hours or more. School-aged children receive care outside school hours.

Other family care: Care provided for a single child or a small group of children in the care-giver's own home. The caregiver may be part of an organised scheme or operate independently.

Organised other family care: Service where 'other family care' is provided by caregivers who are recruited, paid and supported by a public or private organisation.

Playcentres: Group care for children between 2 and compulsory school age, outside the education system. Children attend less than 4 hours a day.

Kindergartens: Group care for children between 2 and compulsory school age, outside the education system. Children attend 4 hours a day or more.

Preprimary schooling: Schooling specifically organised for children from 3 or 4 to compulsory school age, though sometimes 2 year olds are admitted: part of the education system. Hours vary from 2 1/2 - 8 a day.

Early primary schooling: Admission of children to primary school for 1 - 2 years before compulsory school-age. Usually 4 1/2 - 6 hours a day.

School-based outside school hours care: Care provided outside school hours for children who attend primary or pre-primary school, and based in school.
Own home care: Care provided in the child's own home by a paid caregiver; the caregiver may live in the child's home or come in daily.

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CANADA

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Kindergarten and primary education are fully funded by provincial, and often, municipal, governments. Parents do not pay for education. Child Care is primarily supported by parent fees which are set by the organization or individual operating the service.

Schools are operated by local school boards under provincial legislation, regulations and guidelines which are developed and implemented and enforced by ministeries of education.

Statutory school age in all provinces is six years old. In all provinces but New Brunswick, children may start school half-days at age five. Some school boards (eg. Ontario) may provide kindergarten for four year olds. By 1990, all school boards in Ontario will have to provide half-day kindergarten for four and five year olds and will be allowed to provide full-day kindergarten for five year olds.

Provincial ministries of social services set the funding and program legislation and regulations for formal child care. Regulated child care is available in group centres or family homes. Families that do not use regulated child care often use a variety of "informal" types of child care (e.g. babysitters, nannies).

A full-day group care situation is usually called a child care centre. Half-day child care is usually referred to as nursery school. The age group covered by legislation and regulation varies from province to province.

Parents who use regulated care may receive assistance with child care fees through geared-to-income subsidies cost-shared by federal, provincial and, in Alberta and Ontario, municipal governments. Six provinces provide small per-child grants to help defray child care operating costs and slightly decrease parent fees. Most provinces give grants for start-up costs and renovations.

Child care is provided by a range of sponsors -- non-profit organizations, for-profit operators and municipalities. Many of the non-profit organizations involve parents on boards of directors.

Young school-aged children (under six years old) may attend kindergarten for 2 - 2.5 hours per day and child care for the remaining hours. Older school-aged children may attend child care before and after school.

The federal government contributes funding to child care through expenditures on child care the following ways: the Canada Assistance Plan which is the largest contributor, Employment and Immigration Dependent Care Allowance and child care and Indian reserves.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: Canada's policy approach to child care is to leave individuals to work out their own solutions. In Canada, publicly-provided child care tends to occur in a social welfare context (Kamerman, cited in Cooke, 1986, p. 253).

B. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Although creches had been operated in charitable organizations since the late 1800, the impetus for the development of day care in Canada is generally attributed to the Second World War. During the war, the government needed workers for war-related industries. For this reason, they provided subsidies to women with preschool and school-age children who were employed in war-related industries.

In the aftermath of the war, the government drastically reduced funding and reduced the number of child care programs. The day care that remained was available to those who could afford to pay for it and to those who could not but who could demonstrate a "need" for subsidy.

Half-day kindergartens were available in private institutions from the late 1700s. Public school boards operated them from the late 1800s. Toronto was one of the first school boards to publicly fund kindergartens in 1983. Kindergartens were established partly to provide young children with group experiences prior to the more academic program of grade 1 and partly to help immigrant children assimilate into Canadian culture.

During the 1960s, the need for child care and the recognition of the potential value of providing programs that enabled both parents to work began to influence the social policy makers.

During the mid-60s, the provincial governments assumed increasingly the necessary legislative and funding needs of day care programs. To begin with, growth was slow. However, social forces continued to act on social policy and in the early 1970s, change in legislation and funding began to escalate. The availability of school-age child care programs did not become an issue until the late 70s and the 80s.

According to Kuiken, using as indicators the past development of preschool services and the current focus on school-aged child care, the next few years are crucial for the development of school-aged policy and programs (Kuiken, 1985, p. 3).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - In order to qualify for maternity benefits under the Unemployment Insurance program, women must have worked 20 weeks in the previous 52 weeks. In most provinces, in order to qualify for leave, they must have worked one year with the same employer (Cooke, 1986, p. 243).

Women eligible under the terms of the Unemployment Insurance Act get 17 weeks of leave with 15 weeks of benefits equivalent to 60% of the insured part of their income. This works out to only 53% of the insured earnings (Cooke, 1986, p. 240). In 1985, the maximum insurable earnings were $460 which provided a maximum weekly benefit of $276 (Cooke, 1986, p. 240).

In nine of the twelve Canadian jurisdictions, women are allowed to allocate the portion of their total leave they wish to take in the pre-natal and in the post-natal period (Cooke, 1986, p. 240).

In Canada, fathers are entitled to take leave on birth of a child in the following situations: if they are employed in enterprises under federal jurisdiction (24 weeks), if they are employed in Saskatchewan and Manitoba (6 weeks); and if they are employed in Quebec (2 days) (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Adopting parents have been eligible to collect Unemployment Insurance benefits since 1984. However, employment standards entitle very few workers to take leave when they adopt a child (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Extended Child Care Leave - The Canada Labour Code is the only statutory provision for extended care leave in Canada. It provides either parent with 24 weeks of unpaid leave to be taken after the 17-week maternity leave has been completed (Cooke, 1986, p. 246).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - Canada does not provide an annual allotment of leave to parents to take care of sick children (Cooke, 1986, p. 247).

Child Care Legislation - The only jurisdiction in Canada that has not legislated standards and licensing procedures is the Northwest Territories (Cooke, 1986, p. 141). For information on specific jurisdictional legislation, see Table 4 in the section "Regulation" of the program "Licensed family child care homes".

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** Child care programs are generally developed by provincial and territorial departments of social services. Prekindergarten (junior) or senior kindergartens are generally operated by ministries of education (Cooke, 1986, p. 271).

E. **CHILD CARE OVERVIEW:** In Canada, the licensed child care options available for children less than three years old are family child care homes and licensed centre care.

There are three basic types of family day care available in Canada: licensed family day homes; licensed family day care agencies; and approved or registered family day homes.

For younger school-aged children, the child care options available are: licensed family day homes; licensed centres; prekindergarten (depending on province or municipality) and kindergarten; and before- and after-school care.

For older school-aged children, the child care options available are: licensed family day homes; licensed centres; and before- and after-school care.

F. CHILD CARE COVERAGE:

"The licensed sector covers about 9% of children whose parents work or study a substantial part of the week. The remaining 91% are cared for by the unlicensed sector...sufficient licensed spaces existed in 1984 to serve less than 4% of the Canadian population under 13 years of age" (Cooke, 1986, p. 270).

In Canada, in 1988, 7,994, or 25.9%, of the licensed family child care spaces were occupied by children between the ages of four and six years old. 84,944, or 36.39%, of the spaces in licensed child care centres are taken by children 4-6 years old. Only 94,145, 40.43% of all spaces are taken by children under 4 years old, and 53,698, or 23% of the total spaces are taken by children 6 - 12 years old (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, p. 6).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Across Canada, there are currently over 17,000 licensed spaces available for older school-aged children (6+). According to Biemiller et al (1985), while the Canadian Education Association's 1983 survey Day Care and the Canadian School System indicates that in many schools child care is being established, most of the programs are located in a few provinces and the pattern of service and accessibility within a given province varies.

TABLE 2

Three Types of Family Child Care by Province, 1985*

Province	Licensed/ approved school-aged family day care spaces	Licensed school-aged child care centre spaces	Total school-aged licensed spaces
British Columbia	1,300 5,500	5,300 to 6,700	6,600 to 12,200
Alberta		most	7,500 to 8,000
Saskatchewan			2,231
Manitoba			
Ontario	2,200	8,641	10,841
Quebec			19,374 in school-based programs alone
Newfoundland		50	50
New Brunswick			455
Nova Scotia		650	650
Prince Edward Island		84	84
Northwest Territories		0	0
Yukon		0	0

Compiled from information in Kuiken's "Latchkey Children", 1986.

* Aged 6+ years.

G. GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN:

The federal government provides financial support to families with children in two ways: federal government expenditure on child care; and federal government expenditure on benefits for children.

Federal Government Expenditure on Child Care

Financial support for child care is extended by the federal government through the following four measures:

1) **The Child Care Expense Deduction** - The Child Care Expense Deduction allowed on a parent's income tax is the federal government's major source of child care contributions.

   This measure allows taxpayers to claim a deduction of up to $4,000 for child care expenses per child under 6 years old; $2,000 for children over 6 years old (Child Care, A Better Alternative, Department of Health and Welfare, 1988 p. 18). Associated with the deduction are some of the constraints:

   - the child care expenses must have been incurred to enable the taxpayer to work, attend an occupational training course, conduct research, or operate a business;

- in a two-income household, the deduction must be claimed against the lower income;

- tax receipts for the child care service must be available upon request to substantiate expenditures; and

It is important to note that the Child Care Expense Deduction is of benefit to the parent only if the parent has sufficient taxable income from which to deduct the expense (Cooke, 1986, pp. 166-168).

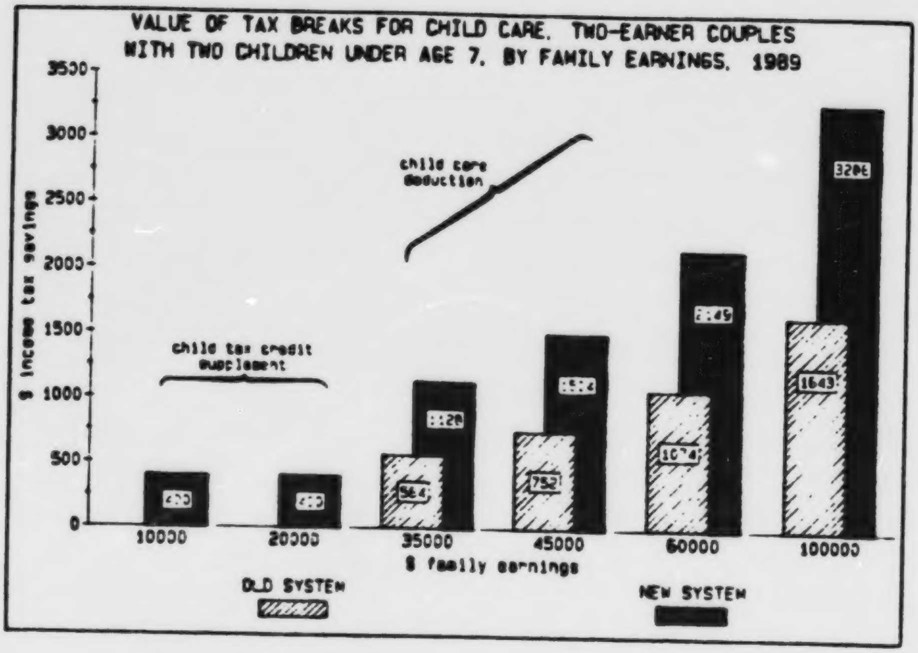
Furthermore, the Child Care Expense Deduction provides the most benefit to high-income earners. Because it reduces taxable income, the Child Care Expense Deduction provides tax savings that increase as incomes increases.

The effect of the Child Care Expense Deduction is demonstrated in Figure 1. This figure, taken from the National Welfare Council's Child Care, A Better Alternative, indicates the combined effect of a new 1989 tax credit (a supplement of $200 a child for low income families) and the Child Care Expense Deduction on the value of tax savings. It also compares the value of tax savings under the old and the new Child Care

Expense Deduction (Child Care, A Better Alternative, National Welfare Council, 1988, pp.15-20).

Figure 1

Value of Tax Breaks for Child Care, Two-Earner Couples with Two Children under 7, By Family Earnings, 1989



Source: Child Care, A Better Alternative, National Welfare Council, 1988.

2) The Canada Assistance Plan (CAP) -

The CAP program is a federal cost-sharing program. CAP shares with the provincial/territorial governments the cost of providing subsidized care primarily in regulated group or family home situations to families that are in need or likely to become in need. In theory, the cost of this subsidized care is shared by the federal and the provincial governments on a 50-50 basis (Cooke, 1986, p. 175). In practice, the share contributed by the federal government is often less because the provinces do not use the criteria suggested by the federal guidelines for assessing each family's need for subsidy (Cooke, 1986, p. 176).

Eligibility for subsidized care is determined by needs or income tests which are set by each province or territory.

Ontario and North West Territories use a needs test to determine the eligibility of low-income wage-earning families for subsidized care. In addition, all provinces and territories use a needs test to determine the eligibility of persons to receive social assistance (welfare). The other nine provinces and Yukon use an income test to determine the eligibility of low-income wage-earning families for subsidized care (Cooke, 1986, p. 182).

3) **Employment and Immigration Canada (EIC) Dependent Care Allowances** - Child care allowances are provided to trainees enrolled in approved courses at community colleges and vocational schools. In 1984-85, $16.9 million was provided to this program (Cooke, 1986, p. 176).

4) **Child Care on Indian Reserves** - Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC) provide funds for child care centres on Indian reserves. Most of the funding to reserves is traditionally received by Ontario.

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 6 years old.

B. DEFINITIONS OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:

The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Canada is six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children, will be defined as programs that children less than six years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children six years or older are eligible to attend.

Provision varies greatly from province to province.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: Licensed family child care homes

(1) Licensed family day homes
[Other family caregiver]
(2) Licensed family day care agencies
[Organized other family care]
(3) Approved or registered family day homes
[Other family caregiver]

PROGRAM USER: Licensed family child care homes offer child care for all ages of children from infancy up. In Canada, in 1988, 7,994, or 25.9%, of the licensed family child care spaces were occupied by children between the ages of four and six years old. At the same time, 4,309, or 14%, of the licensed family child care spaces were occupied by children 7-12 years old (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, National Day Care Information Centre, Health and Welfare Canada).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator

Licensed family day home - Operated by independent homes or operators who provide day care services to a set number of children. The homes are not associated with an agency (Bates, 1984, p. 27).

Licensed family day care agencies- Operated by non-profit societies, corporations, or private individuals. They apply to the provincial government "to deliver day care services to families, and to recruit, select, train and monitor home providers registered with them". Once their application is accepted, they approve a number of individual homes and home day care providers under their sponsorship (Bates, 1984, p. 27).

Approved or registered family day homes- Operated by independent homes or operators who provide day care services to a set number of children. These homes are not licensed. However, for the purpose of authorizing subsidies for child care, they are approved through a provincial government day care office (Bates, 1984, p. 27).

See Table 3 for summary.

iii) Location

Licensed family day homes;
Licensed family day care agencies;
Approved or registered family day homes -
In neighborhood homes.

CANADA continued

TABLE 3

Three Types of Licensed Family Child Care Homes by Province, 1985

PROVINCE	LICENSED FAMILY DAY HOMES	LICENSED FAMILY DAY CARE AGENCIES	APPROVED OR REGISTERED HOMES
British Columbia	Family Day Care	Family Day Care Support Programs	x
Alberta	Family Day Care Home	Satellite Family Day Home	
Saskatchewan	Family Day Care Home		
Manitoba	Group Day Care Home Family Day Care Home		x
Ontario		Private Home Day Care	
Quebec		Home Day Care	
Newfoundland			
New Brunswick	Family Day Care Home Community Day Care Home		x
Nova Scotia			x
Prince Edward Island			x
Yukon	Family Day Home		
Northwest Territories			

CANADA continued

Table 3 is compiled from information provided in "Day Care Standards in Canada", a background paper for the Report of the Task Force on Child Care.

Approved or registered family day homes- While there is no legislation in the Northwest Territories for family day care, family day homes operate in Yellowknife under the auspices of the Y.W.C.A. Their operation is based on the legislation and regulations used by Alberta's satellite family day home system (Bates, 1984, p. 29).

iv) **Time of Operation** - All three types of family day care can offer care for no longer than 24 hours generally (Bates, 1984, pp. 42-70).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding**

Operating Grants - Operating grants for the day-to-day maintenance of programs are available in Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Quebec and New Brunswick. In Ontario, they are directed specifically to staff salaries. However, for low income families who qualify via the needs in income test, subsidies are provided to licensed family day care centres only in Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Quebec. In Ontario, they go to agencies (Cooke, 1986, p. 188; New Directions for Child Care, p. ii).

The operating grants provided by Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Quebec and New Brunswick are eligible for some cost-sharing by the federal government. The share paid by the federal government is based on the proportion of the spaces that are for families in need or likely to be in need (Cooke, 1986, p. 189).

Grants for Start-up, Renovation or Relocation - According to Cooke, (1986) start-up, renovation, and relocation grants are provided by most provincial governments. However, in most provinces these grants are restricted to non-profit centres. Only in Saskatchewan and Manitoba are start-up grants provided to licensed family child care homes as well as to centres.

For more detailed information on operating grants and grants for start-up, renovation and relocation, see Cooke, (1986), pp. 188-190.

For an overview of federal and provincial child care funding, see the section "Government expenditure on families with children" under "II Child Care Environment."

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Varies according to agency and homes. Families either pay full fee or are subsidized on a sliding scale by federal (CAP) and provincial and in Ontario municipal funds.

The market prices give only a partial picture of the cost of child care. Some families that pay for child care are entitled to claim a Child Care Expense Deduction on their income-tax returns and/or may be eligible for a subsidy. In the Report of the Task Force on Child Care, Cooke (1986) examines the effect of these two measures on the net cost of a families child care expenditures.

viii) **Regulation** - According to Bates, (1984) several provinces have developed or are developing provincial standards for supervised private home care providers and/or agencies (Biemiller, et al 1985, p. 14).

Approved or registered family day homes- May be approved through a provincial government day care office for the purpose of authorizing subsidies for child care (Bates, 1984, p. 27).

Enforcement of standards varies with the jurisdiction. It may be done by fire and public health officials and/or provincial day care administrators (Cooke, 1986, p. 160).

Licensed family day homes - According to Bates, (1984) regulations are for the most part neither precise or clear. It is her belief that an analysis of how the regulations are implemented, would reveal the level of quality of licensed family day service.

Enforcement of standards varies with the jurisdiction. It may be done by fire and public health officials and/or provincial day care administrators (Cooke, 1986, p. 160).

Licensed family day care agencies - The primary responsibility for enforcement of standards lies with the sponsoring agencies which supervises a number of family child care homes. For example, in Ontario, agencies must visit each home at least once every 3 months and government officials make spot-checks of the homes as well (Cooke, 1986, p. 160).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - Varies by province and with the ages of the children in the home. Higher staff:child ratios are required with younger children. See "Group Composition" for more detailed information (Bates, 1984, pp. 42-44).

xii) Staff

Licensed family day homes,
Approved or registered family day homes- One independent operator with a set number of children (Bates, 1984, pp. 27-28).

Licensed family day care agencies - Quebec Home Day Care requires one adult per four children (including the caregiver's own), and a second adult helper for 5-9 children (Bates, 1984, p. 29).

In addition to child care providers, Ontario agencies must employ one full-time visitor for every 25 homes (Bates, 1984, pp. 31).

In addition to child care providers, Alberta agencies are required to hire project coordinators who may supervise a maximum of 20 homes. In addition, home visitors may be hired to assist project co-ordinators if the latter's caseload becomes too heavy (Bates, 1984, p. 31).

xiii) Staff Training

Licensed family day homes,
Approved or registered family day homes - Legislation and regulations in many jurisdictions promote training opportunities for family home providers. However, training is not a prerequisite to obtaining a licence in any jurisdiction (Cooke, 1986, p. 154).

Licensed family day care agencies - The four provinces with agency-sponsored child care homes are required to provide training opportunities for caregivers. Regulations in Manitoba even allow the licensing authorities to make training a condition of licence renewal (Cooke, 1986, 155).

In Alberta, the project coordinator who works for the sponsoring agency must be knowledgeable about early childhood development and open-minded. In addition, this person must have good judgment, and the ability to organize, plan, and supervise. The home visitor too must have practical knowledge of child development and the ability to train and supervise family home providers (Bates, 1984, p. 31).

In Ontario, the home visitor must have post-secondary education in child development and family studies and two years' work experience. with children (Bates, 1984, p. 31).

No mention of the qualifications required for persons who supervise home day care agencies.

xiv) Group Composition

Licensed family day homes,
Licensed family day care agencies,
Approved or registered family day home - Group composition and group size vary by province and with the ages of the children in the home. The younger the children are, the higher is the staff:child ratio (Bates, 1984, p. 27).

Provincial regulations stipulate the following limits on groups size and composition:

Licensed family day homes

BRITISH COLUMBIA
Family day care home - More than 3 and a maximum of 5 children and 2 school-aged children at one time, including all children under 12 living or cared for in a facility, with no more, at any one time, than: one child under 12 months, or 2 children under 24 months (Bates,

1984, p. 28).

ALBERTA

Family day care home - More than 3 and less than 7 children under 6 years, including operator's own children, no more than 4 children under 2 years (Bates, 1984, p. 28).

SASKATCHEWAN

Family day care home - Maximum 8 children ranging from 6 weeks to 12 years, including provider's own children with no more than: 5 children 6 weeks to 6 years old; 2 children under 30 months; 3 children 6 weeks to 30 months (Bates, 1984, p. 28).

MANITOBA

Family day care home - up to 8 children, with no more than 5 children under 6, and 3 children under two (Bates, 1984, p. 28).

NEW BRUNSWICK

Community day care home - A maximum of 3 infants; or 5 children 2-5 years; or 9 children 6 years and over; or 6 children 5 and under, and 6 and over, including the provider's own children (Bates, 1984, p. 28).

Family Day Care Agencies

ALBERTA

Satellite family day home system- Each private residence may provide care for no more than 5 preschoolers, including the provider's children, under 14 years of age, with no more than 3 children under three years (Bates, 1984, p. 31).

ONTARIO

Private Home Day Care - The number of children cannot exceed 5 under six years old, including the provider's children. The number should not exceed 2 handicapped children; 2 children under two years old; 3 children under 3 years old; 1 handicapped child and 1 child under two; 1 handicapped child and 1 children under 3 (Bates, 1984, p. 31).

QUEBEC

Private Home Day Care - Four is the maximum number of children per home including the caregiver's own children, or 9 if the caregiver has an adult helper (Bates, 1984, p. 29).

xv) Group Size - The maximum number of children permitted in a home before a license is required varies from two in British Columbia to nine in Quebec. The maximum number of children permitted in a licensed home varies from three in an approved family day home in Nova Scotia to twelve in Group day care homes in Prince Edward Island and Manitoba. For more information, see p. 152 of the Report of the Task Force on Child Care.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: The report Status of Daycare in Canada 1988 estimates that there were approximately 30,839 licensed family home child care spaces in Canada in 1988, a 14.8% increase in spaces over 1987 (Status of Day Care in Canada 1988, p. 6).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: According to Cooke (1986), the factors that are most strongly tied to provision of quality care in family home child care spaces are:

i) caregiver:child composition - number of children in the home, age-mix of children;

ii) training related to child care and development and personal characteristics;

iii) sponsorship;

iv) parent involvement.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Cooke (1986) states that it is difficult to compare the quality of care in licensed homes with that in unlicensed homes without empirical evidence. However, she asserts that a number of factors in licensed homes contribute to the quality of care in licensed homes:

i) the caregivers' have a vivid perception of their roles;

ii) as a result of the support they get from their sponsors, the caregivers are able to function at a high level and deliver stimulating programs;

iii) the caregivers get training which can improve their understanding and treatment of children; and

iv) the licensed caregivers offer stable and consistent care because they are less likely to quit at short notice.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: According to Bates (1984), regulations are for the most part neither precise or clear. It is her belief that an analysis of how the regulations are implemented, would reveal the level of quality of licensed family day service.

PROGRAM NAME: **Licensed child care centres**
[Pre-school and school-age centre];
[School-based outside school hours care];
[Centre-based outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: Child care centres offer group care for infants, preschoolers, and school-aged children. According to a report of the National Day Care Information Centre, Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, 84,944, or 36.39%, of the spaces in licensed child care centres are taken by children 4-6 years old. Only 94,145, 40.43% of the spaces are taken by children under 4 years old, and 53,698, or 23% of the total spaces are taken by children 6 - 12 years old (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, p. 6).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - "Provide part- or full-day care and education for children from birth to 5 years of age, usually while parents are working" (Biemiller, et al 1985, p. 6).

ii) **Operator** - Licensed child care centres are operated commercially, by non-profit organizations or by government agencies (Cooke, 1986, p. 42). In Canada, in 1988, 143,875 centre spaces were provided by non-profit operators and 88,912 by commercial operators. This is an increase of 13.92% of spaces in non-profit care and a decrease of 1.63% of spaces in commercial care from 1987 (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, p. 7).

iii) **Location** - No mention.

iv) **Time of Operation** - Full-time 7:00 or 8.00 A.M. to 5:30 or 6:00 P.M. on weekdays. Part-time programs are offered for kindergarten children and for school-aged children before and after school and during school holidays (Cooke, 1986, p. 42).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - Varies with program but they must at least break even through a combination of parent fees and often subsidies for low-income children.

vi) **Funding** - In Canada, licensed child care centres are funded by federal and provincial monies, grants from community agencies, employer grants, and parental fees. The particular combination of financial sources varies with the mandate of the child care centre, and with the particular jurisdiction in which it is located.

Licensed child care centres receive financial support in the form of subsidies on behalf of the low-income families as determined by a needs or income test from both the federal (CAP) and the provincial governments. This is administered by the provinces and, in some cases, municipal governments.

The federal government makes contributions to licensed centres through CAP. According to CAP, the federal government matches on a 50:50 basis each province's expenditure on subsidized child care. However, the federal government contributes less than 50% to most provinces. See "Government expenditure on families with children" under "Child Care Environment".

Another way that the federal government funds child care centres on Indian reserves is through Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC). Most of this funding was allocated to reserves in Ontario. Ontario has had a cost-sharing agreement with the federal government since 1965. The federal government has agreed to cost-share expenditures made by Ontario to provide child care services and other social services on Indian reserves (Cooke, 1986, p. 176).

In addition, some provinces provide operating grants to child care and grants for start-up, renovation or relocation of child care centres.

Operating Grants - In addition to child care susidies for low-income families, operating grants are available for licensed centres in Ontario, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Quebec and New Brunswick (Cooke, 1986, p. 188).

In Alberta, grants are paid to commercial centres as well non-profit centres.

In Saskatchewan, operating grants are available for each licensed centre space in northern regions of the province. In addition, centres are provided with annual equipment grants.

In Manitoba, annual maintenance and audit grants are provided to licensed centres.

Ontario has a direct operating grant included to increase salaries of workers.

In Quebec, cooperatives and non-profit centres with parent-controlled boards are provided with operating and accommodation grants. In addition, the Quebec government, through the Ministry of Education, provides annual grants to child care centres that are sponsored by local school boards for school-aged children (Cooke, 1986, p. 188).

In New Brunswick, an annual equipment grant and a small operating grant are provided for licensed centres (Cooke, 1986, p. 188).

Grants for Start-up, Renovation or Relocation - According to Cooke (1986), start-up, renovation, and relocation grants are provided by most provincial governments. However, in most provinces these grants are restricted to non-profit centres.

Quebec provides the most generous grants for start-up or expansion and for renovation of older centres. In addition, the Quebec Ministry of Education provides grants for start-up of centres for school-aged children (Cooke, 1986, p. 189).

For an overview of federal and provincial child care funding, see the section "Government expenditure on families with children" under Part II, Child Care Environment".

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Fees vary. Families that qualify are subsidized. Subsidies are cost shared by federal, provincial, and in Ontario municipal governments. Subsidized spaces are limited in most parts of the country.

Child care expense deductions are available through the tax system.

viii) __Regulation__ - Legally, day care centres come under the jurisdiction of the provinces and territories (Biemiller, et al 1985, p. 11). The provinces and the territories produce legislation and regulations establishing certain powers and procedures for enforcing the standards set for day care centres. In all provinces and Yukon, inspection by government officials ensures compliance with day care standards (Cooke, 1986, p. 159).

Table 4 details the legislation, regulation, and jurisdiction under which provincial child care falls:

TABLE 4
PROVINCIAL LEGISLATION, REGULATION AND JURISDICTION

PROVINCE	LEGISLATION AND REGULATION	JURISDICTION
BRITISH COLUMBIA	Community Care Facilities Act, 1970; Provincial Child Care Regulations, 1981	Provincial Child Care Facilities Licensing Board, Ministry of Health
ALBERTA	Social Care Facilities Licensing Act, 1980, Amended 1983; Day Care Regulations, 1981	Community Day Programs, Department of Social Services and Community Health
SASKATCHEWAN	Day Care Regulations, 1981	Director, Daycare Branch Department of Social Services
MANITOBA	Chapter C158: The Community Child Day Care Standards Act, 1982; Regulations 62/86 and 23/87: Being Regulations Under the Community Child Day Care Standards Act	Acting Director, Manitoba Child Day Care, Department of Community Services
ONTARIO	Day Nurseries Act. Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1987	Director, Child Care Branch, Ministry of Community and Social Services
QUEBEC	Bill 77: An Act Respecting Child Day Care, 1979; Regulations Respecting Day Care Centres, 1983	Presidente, Office des services de Garde a l'enfance
NEW BRUNSWICK	Child and Family Services and Family Relations Act, 1980; Regulations, 1983-85; Day Care Facilities Standards, 1985	Provincial Coordinator, Early Childhood Services, Department of Health and Community Services

Table 4 continued

PROVINCE	LEGISLATION AND REGULATION	JURISDICTION
NEWFOUNDLAND	An Act Respecting Daycare and Homemaker Services, 1975; Daycare and Homemaker Services Regulations, 1982; Daycare and Preschool Licensing Requirements, Newfoundland and Labrador Department of Social Services, 1986-87	Day Care and Homemaker Services, Department of Social Services
NOVA SCOTIA	Daycare Act and Regulations, Chapter 6, Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1978; Guidelines for Operating Daycare Facilities for Children in Nova Scotia, Nova Scotia Department of Social Services, 1983.	Director of Daycare Services, Family and Children's Services Division, Department of Social Services
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND	Childcare Facilities Act, 1980; Guidelines to the Regulations for the Child Care Facilities Act	Daycare Coordinator, Division of Child and Family Services, Department of Social Services
NORTHWEST TERRITORIES	An Act Respecting Child Day Care Facilities, 1988; The Child Day Care Standards Regulations, 1988	Consultant on Day Care, Department of Social Services.
YUKON	Day Care Act, Order-in-Council 1986/29, 1986	Day Care Coordinator, Day Care Services Board, Department of Health and Human Resources

Compiled from Childcare Information Sheets 1987, The Childcare Resource and Research Unit, Centre for Urban and Community Studies, University of Toronto.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination

Quebec - In Quebec, where the school boards have been mandated to provide outside school hours child care, they have the option of operating the programs themselves or sub-contracting the responsibility to preschool centres licensed for school-aged children.

Ontario - In the past, vacant space in schools has been made available for centres operated by commercial and non-profit operators. In the recent provincial policy, New Directions for Child Care, the Ontario government has committed itself to future growth of the child care system with the non-profit sector. One of the initiatives of the New Directions for Child Care policy is the formation of a partnership between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Community and Social Services. Part of the purpose of their partnership is to encourage the increased development of school-aged child care in schools, old, new, primary, and secondary. The provincial government, through the Ministry of Education, is providing funds to build a new child care facility as a part of every new school. The Ministry of Community and Social Services is providing the necessary start-up and equipment grants (Child Care in

School, Questions & Answers, p. 1).

Within the context of the new direction toward the growth of child care within the non-profit sector, non-profit operators are being given priority for existing space in schools. Only non-profit organizations may operate the child care programs using the newly-built facilities.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication There is an emphasis on parental involvement in day care centres. Yukon, and several provinces including Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan, put an emphasis on parental involvement in the operation of centres. For example, all centres licensed after October 1, 1982 in Saskatchewan are non-profit centres with parents representing 50% of board members. In New Brunswick, the boards of non-profit centres must have 25% representation by parents and the centres must have at least two information meetings a year with parents (Cooke, 1986, p. 149).

xi) **Staff:child** - Each province and territory in Canada has its own staff:child ratio. For children aged two to five years, care range from 1:4 to 1:10, depending on group size and age-mix of children. In all provinces ratios for children aged two to four years fall within this general range.

xii) Staff - Generally, staffed both by staff trained in Early Childhood Education and by untrained staff (Biemiller, et al 1985, p. 6).

xiii) Staff Training - Each province and territory in Canada has its own requirements for the training and qualifications of staff in child care centres. In addition to these requirements, in many of the provinces and territories, some of the staff are required to have a recognized first-aid certificate and/or a health certificate (Cooke, 1986, p. 148).

According to Biemiller et al (1985), significant variations exist in provincial standards for staff qualifications. Recently, Ontario made it a requirement that one staff member in each "group" of children (2-3 staff per group) have a degree or diploma in Early Childhood Education from an Ontario community college or the equivalent. Supervisors too are required to have this academic qualification in addition to two years of experience in a program similar to the one that is being supervised. For further information, see pages 22-24 of "Day Care Standards in Canada" one of the background papers for the Report of the Task Force on Child Care.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - Each province and territory in Canada has its own standard for group sizes. According to Cooke, the prevailing standard in group size for children six and younger, appears to be a 1:15 ratio and a group size of 30 or more. (Cooke, 1986, p. 144).

xvi) Space - In Canada, all provinces require that each child have at least 2.75 sq. m. (about 30 sq. ft.) of indoor space and 4 to 7 sq. m. (about 45 to 75 sq. ft.) of outdoor space (Cooke, 1986, p. 149). For specific details refer to Bates (1984), Day Care Standards in Canada, Table 5, p. 19.

xvii) Activities - Most of the jurisdictional regulation concerning activities offered in child care programs, emphasizes the need for "activities suited to the age and developmental needs of children in order to promote the social, emotional, physical and intellectual development of children" (Bates, 1986, p. 24). Most child care centres offer a structured program with outdoor and indoor play, storytime, arts and crafts, and nutritious meals and snacks

(Cooke, 1986, p. 41).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: According to the report Status of Day Care in Canada, there were 232,787 centre spaces in Canada in 1988 for children of all ages. The number of centre spaces increased 7.43% from the number in 1987 (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, p. 7).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: According to Cooke (1986), the key indicators of quality in child care centres are:

i) caregiver:child composition (adult:child ratios and group size);
ii) training related to child development and care;
iii) parent involvement; and
iv) space that is adequately designed and equipped (p.134).

In order to maintain quality in child care centres, a number of tools must be employed: licensing standards, enforcement and monitoring of standards; professional associations; and public awareness and scrutiny (Cooke, 1986, p. 150).

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: In general, licensed centre care offers greater safety, better staff qualifications and greater reliability than other child care options (Cooke, 1986, p. 42).

The minimum standards set out in jurisdictional legislation in Canada "are sufficient to provide good care for children enrolled in these [child care centre] programs" (Cooke, 1986, p. 150).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: "Disadvantages of licensed child care centres include inflexible hours of operation, cost to parents, unavailability of part-time spaces, and in programs that are not well designed or managed, an impersonal or institutional atmosphere" (Cooke, 1986, p. 42).

Two areas of concern regarding child care centres are: staff:child ratios for infant care, and provision for staff training in some provinces (Cooke, 1986, p. 150).

PROGRAM NAME: **Prekindergarten and Kindergarten**
[Early primary schooling and Kindergarten]

PROGRAM USER: Children three to five years of age (Biemiller, et al 1985, p. 6).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - Gives child a foundation for further education in providing for the development of language, social skills, physical proficiency, artistic activity, problem-solving and emotional maturity through the provision of activities appropriate to each child's age and development.

ii) Operator - Local boards of education operate kindergarten programs. In Quebec, Ontario, and Manitoba, the local boards have the option of offering junior kindergarten for 4 year olds (Bieimiller et al 1985, p. 8).

iii) Location - in schools.

iv) Time of Operation - Half day. As of September of 1990, school boards in Ontario must operate half-day junior and senior kindergartens for 4 and 5 year-olds and will be allowed to operate full-day senior kindergartens.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - In 1981-82, total expenditures on Canadian education amounted to $26 billion, or 7.6% of the GNP (Kurian, 1988, p. 191).

vi) **Funding** - Canada ranks among the top countries in terms of the national wealth spent on education. In 1981-82, total expenditures on Canadian education amounted to $26 billion, or 7.6% of the GNP. The three levels of government provided over 92% of the expenditures with 9% coming from the federal government, 66% from provincial governments, and 18% from municipal governments. The remainder comes from fees and other income (Kurian, 1988, p. 191).

Elementary schools are financed by municipal property taxes and by provincial funds (Holmes, 1983, p. 118).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Free to parents.

viii) **Regulation** - Education legislation specific to each province.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - Varies according to school board.

xii) Staff - Teachers receive provincial certification.

xiii) Staff Training - The standard requirement for teacher certification is a university degree in arts or science and the equivalent of one year of professional training at the university level (Kurian, 1988, p. 193).

xiv) Group Composition - Varies according to school board.

xv) Group Size - Class size is up to 25 children (Kurian, 1988, p. 187), but may vary according to school board or school. Not legislated in most provinces.

xvi) Space - Varies according to school board.

xvii) Activities - Kindergarten curriculum provides opportunities for singing, music, physical activity, socialization, art, and language development. Open education methods and "integrated day" approaches are commonly used (Kurian, 1988, p. 187).

According to Beimiller et al (1985), "kindergarten programming practice does not vary systematically on a province-by-province basis. Programs are similar to kindergarten-nursery programming in the United States and Britain in emphasizing a combination of activity based "free activity periods, outdoor play, and relatively short periods of teacher-directed activity".

Canada is officially bilingual, with 68% of the population classified as Anglophone and the remainder Francophone. In the past few years there has been a rapidly growing movement in English-speaking Canada to offer bilingual education starting in kindergarten. French instruction ranges from 20-minute lessons several times per week to complete "French Immersion" programs.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In all provinces but New Brunswick, all 5 year-olds may attend half-day senior kindergarten. By 1990, in Ontario, all 4 and 5 year-olds will be able to attend half-day junior kindergarten and senior kindergarten. Where space permits, full-day senior kindergartens may be provided.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: **Licensed family child care homes**

(1) Licensed family day homes
[Other Family Caregiver]

(2) Licensed family day care agencies
[Organized Other Family Care]

(3) Approved or registered family day homes
[Other Family Caregiver]

PROGRAM USER: Licensed family child care homes offer child care for all ages of children from infancy up. In Canada, in 1988, 24.6% of the licensed family child care spaces were occupied by children 5 and 6 years old (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, National Day Care Information Centre, Health and Welfare Canada).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "School-aged child care programs for younger children".

PROGRAM NAME: **Licensed or regulated child care centres**
[Pre-school and school-aged care]
[School-based outside school hours care]
[Centre-based outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: Child care centres offer group care for infants, preschoolers, and school-aged children. According to a report of the National Day Care Information Centre, Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, 84,944, or 36.39%, of the spaces in licensed child care centres are taken by children 4-6 years old. Only 94,145, 40.43% of the spaces are taken by children under 4 years old, and 53,698, or 23% of the total spaces are taken by children 6 - 12 years old (Status of Day Care in Canada, 1988, p. 6).

Before- and after-school care is generally available for older school-aged children who would be unattended after school.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - School-age programs are based on a well-developed and consistent philosophy of child development and growth.

The philosophy on which school-aged programs are based, like the philosophy of preschool programs, "recognizes the importance of childhood and learning, and views school-age child care as an essential service in support of the entire family. While the child may be the direct recipient of the service, in some sense the parents and other family members can and do benefit too, through the support, enhancement and strengthening of their roles" (Kuiken, 1985, p. 6).

The developmental needs of preschoolers and school-aged children differ. For this reason, the philosophies on which their care is based diverge, (particularly where the older school-aged child (6-12) is concerned.) To a much greater extent than the preschooler, the school-age child is beginning to orient himself to the community, and in this interaction with an expanding environment, the school-aged child is developing a sense of responsibility, cooperation, participation and independence. In fostering this independence, the school-age child requires support and encouragement. The philosophy on which school-aged child care is based recognizes this need and attempts to redress it (Kuiken, 1985, p. 6).

ii) **Operator** - In Canada, outside school hours centre-based child care is offered by commercial operators, municipal/regional government, schools, community agencies, and non-profit parent and community boards. Across the provinces, the availability of particular program types and the activity of particular operators in school-aged child care programs is highly variable (Kuiken, 1986, pp. 31-66).

Across Canada, there is currently a trend for schools to provide space for child care programs. According to Biemiller, et al (1985) 170 of 248 boards responded to the Canadian Education Association's 1983 survey, Day Care and the Canadian School System. Of the respondents, 50% stated that their board housed some type of child care in their schools. The program offered most frequently by the school boards is the out-of-school care program or outside school hours child care. These programs frequently occur as a result of the school board, school administration, and parents.

British Columbia - In British Columbia, included in the range of school-aged child care options are licensed centre care, family day care homes and an informal care system. In addition, many schools operate or have lunch hour programs operated for them (Kuiken, 1986, pp. 31-32).

Most of the school-age child care is sponsored by non-profit agencies like the YMCA, The Boys and Girls Club of Canada, and parent board, non-profit agencies (Kuiken, 1986, p. 31).

Alberta - In Alberta, the range of school-aged child care options varies from location to location. Eighteen municipalities have formal licensed/approved services.

There is a range of operators providing school-age child care -- commercial operators, community agencies, and municipal government.

In terms of older school-aged child care provision, Alberta is unique. In 1980, the provincial government assumed the responsibility for providing preschool care and delegated the responsibility for school-aged child care provision to the municipalities. Specifically, the municipalities are responsible for setting the standards for school-aged child care programs and for funding the programs (Kuiken, 1986, p. 34).

Saskatchewan - In Saskatchewan, formal school-age child care does not appear to be very developed. Most of the formal school-aged child care is provided by preschool day care centres and family day care homes. (Kuiken, 1986, p.37).

Manitoba - According to Kuiken (1986), Manitoba has the beginnings of a well developed formal system of school-age child care programs. In addition, they have many recreational programs sponsored by community agencies like the YMCA and Boys and Girls Clubs, and by municipalities, Parks and Recreation (Kuiken, 1986, p. 41).

Ontario - Of all the provinces, Ontario has the broadest range of school-aged child care programs. This broad range is thought to be the consequence of creative local communities and individual initiatives (Kuiken, 1986, p.44).

The range of child care options includes both licensed care and a well-established informal and unlicensed child care system supported by government funded resource centres. In addition, many Ontario schools provide a supervised lunch program (Kuiken, 1986, p. 44). In addition, recreation programs, boys and girls clubs, settlement houses, etc. constitute an extensive source of unlicensed care for many children.

In Ontario, school-aged child care programs are provided by commercial operators, community agencies, municipalities/regions, schools, and parent boards.

While the school boards in Ontario have not been formally mandated to provide school-aged child care, under the initiatives of the New Directions for Child Care, the Ministry of Education is providing capital funds for new school-age child care spaces while the Ministry of Community & Social Services will provide the necessary start-up and equipment grants (Child Care in Schools, Questions & Answers, p. 1).

The school boards cannot directly operate child care programs. Their role will be to work jointly with the schools and the Ministry of Community & Social Services staff in determining appropriate operators for these school-based child care services and under the new capital funding provisions, design and construct school-based child care facilities and provide the land for those facilities (Child Care in Schools, Questions & Answers, p. 4).

"Within the context of the New Directions for Child Care, the Ontario government has committed itself to future growth of the child care system within the non-profit sector" (Child Care in Schools, Questions & Answers, 1987, p. 3). Therefore, the operators of child care centres in new schools will be non-profit child care corporations. This includes charitable organizations, corporations approved under the Day Nurseries Act, municipalities, Indian Bands, incorporated community groups with a board of community representatives, including parents.

Currently, both non-profit and commercial child care centres are operating in vacant school space. Within the context of The New Directions for Child Care, a priority for the use of vacant school space will be given to non-profit operators (Child Care in Schools, Questions & Answers, p. 3).

Quebec - In Quebec, like Ontario, school-aged child care programs are provided by a whole spectrum of operators. However, what is unique about school-aged child care in Quebec is the province has made it the responsibility of the school boards. The schools can operate the programs themselves or have preschool centres with the appropriate licenses provide the care. However, parents can also choose to have family day care for their children (Kuiken, 1986, p. 49).

In addition to this formal care, the municipalities have successfully provided some recreational programs. However, provision of recreational programs by some municipalities has not generalized much to others. Traditionally, child care has not been a part of the mandate of the municipality (Kuiken, 1986, p. 49).

Nova Scotia - Formal school-aged child care is not well-developed in Nova Scotia. National voluntary agencies provide most of the licensed school-age child care (Kuiken, 1986, p. 52).

New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, Northwest Territories, and Yukon - In the provinces and territories where formal school-aged child care exists, it is not very well developed territories.

In New Brunswick, there is a limited amount of licensed care in the urban areas (Kuiken, 1986, p. 54).

In Newfoundland, there has been only one school-aged program established -- a "workplace school-aged day care" at the university (Kuiken, 1986, p. 59).

In Prince Edward Island, a very limited amount of formal school-aged child care has forced an informal care system to develop. In rural areas, very often a single caregiver family will supervise a number of children from different families. In urban areas, a single caregiver family will look after the children of one other family (Kuiken, 1986, p. 56).

In Yukon, there is no formal school-aged child care except a very few licensed school-aged child care spaces in preschool centres (Kuiken, 1986, p. 62), and in the Northwest Territories, there are none. In fact, informal group school-age child care programs are available only in some areas, and when the programs are operated in schools, care is generally available only on school days (Kuiken, 1986, p. 61).

iii) Location - Most are operated out of space in schools (Biemiller et al, 1985, p. 15). The before- and after-school hours child care programs provided by the Quebec school boards are operated out of empty space in schools and out of licensed child care centres if the schools decide to have the service provided outside the school.

The before- and after-school hours child care programs that are being encouraged by the Ontario school boards are Boards of Education are located in program-built space in new primary and secondary schools, and in vacant space in old primary and secondary schools (Child Care in Schools. Questions & Answers, pp. 4-5).

iv) Time of Operation - These programs can operate before school, after school, and/or during lunchtime (Biemiller et al 1985, p.

15) as well as during the remainder of the day when a kindergarten child is not in school.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - According to Kuiken, subsidies for school-aged child care are available in all provinces and territories except Yukon and eligibility for these subsidies is based upon family income and composition. In Yukon, there are neither subsidies or grants for school-aged child care (Kuiken, 1986, pp. 31-63).

In British Columbia, as with all group child care, the maximum subsidy does not cover the cost of a school-aged child care space. Therefore, most families who have subsidized care are still expected to pay part of the cost (Kuiken, 1986, p. 32).

In addition, to these subsidies, the Social Services, Handicapped Children's Services offer some funding for families with disabled children (Kuiken, 1986, p. 35).

In Alberta, municipalities have in the past contributed on a 20:80 basis to the provinces share of school-aged child expenses. Since provincial funding has been inadequate lately, some municipalities have increased their contribution to 30% of the municipal/provincial contribution (Kuiken, 1986, p. 35).

In Quebec, funding is divided between the school system and the social services sector. The education side funds start-up and some ongoing capital costs and the parent fees cover operating costs. The Ministry of Education provides a one time $3,000.00 start-up grant, a staggered maintenance grant program based on enrollment in the program, and an additional $100.00 a year per capita grant for children who attend inner city schools (Kuiken, 1986, p. 50).

For more details on subsidies in the different provinces, see Kuiken's "Latchkey Children" (Kuiken, pp. 31-63). For an overview of federal and provincial child care funding, see "Government expenditure on families with children" in Part II Child Care Environment.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Only in Quebec are school boards allowed to operate day care services directly for a fee (Biemiller, p. 23).

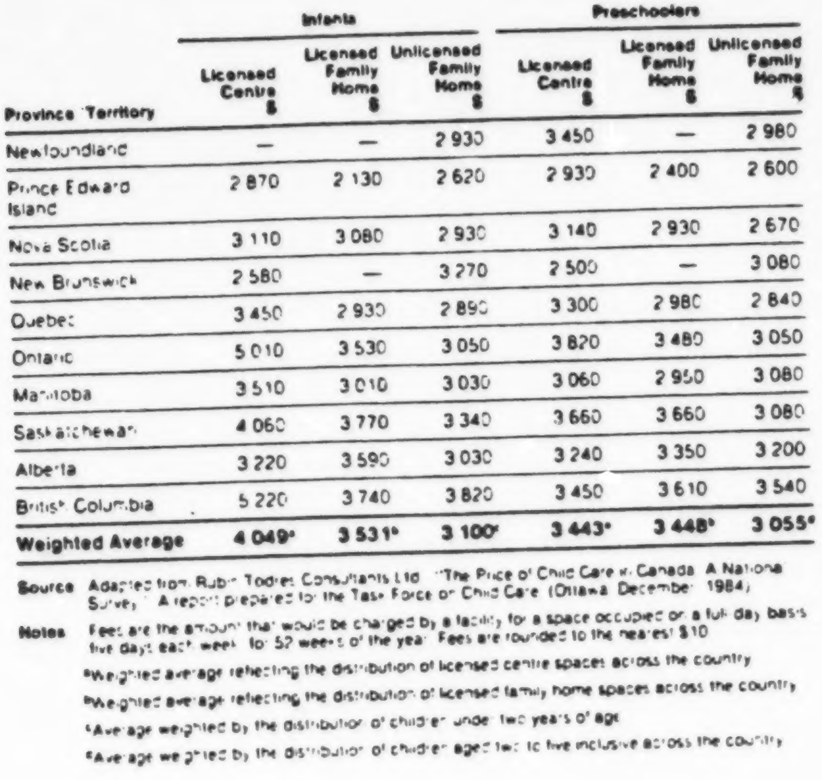
The 1984 Task Force on Child Care conducted research to determine by province the average market price of licensed centre care, licensed family home care and unlicensed family home care for school-aged child care.

Table 5 indicates by province the average fees charged by the licensed centres, licensed family homes, and unlicensed family homes for care of school-aged children:

CANADA continued

TABLE 5

Fees Charged for Care of School-Aged (6+) Children in Licensed and Unlicensed Facilities, by Province, 1984



	Infants			Preschoolers		
Province Territory	**Licensed Centre $**	**Licensed Family Home $**	**Unlicensed Family Home $**	**Licensed Centre $**	**Licensed Family Home $**	**Unlicensed Family Home $**
Newfoundland	—	—	2 930	3 450	—	2 980
Prince Edward Island	2 870	2 130	2 620	2 930	2 400	2 600
Nova Scotia	3 110	3 080	2 930	3 140	2 930	2 670
New Brunswick	2 580	—	3 270	2 500	—	3 080
Quebec	3 450	2 930	2 890	3 300	2 980	2 840
Ontario	5 010	3 530	3 050	3 820	3 480	3 050
Manitoba	3 510	3 010	3 030	3 060	2 950	3 080
Saskatchewan	4 060	3 770	3 340	3 660	3 660	3 080
Alberta	3 220	3 590	3 030	3 240	3 350	3 200
British Columbia	5 220	3 740	3 820	3 450	3 610	3 540
Weighted Average	**4 049[a]**	**3 531[b]**	**3 100[c]**	**3 443[a]**	**3 448[b]**	**3 055[d]**

Source Adapted from Rubin Todres Consultants Ltd "The Price of Child Care in Canada: A National Survey," A report prepared for the Task Force on Child Care (Ottawa, December 1984)

Notes Fees are the amount that would be charged by a facility for a space occupied on a full day basis five days each week for 52 weeks of the year. Fees are rounded to the nearest $10

[a] Weighted average reflecting the distribution of licensed centre spaces across the country

[b] Weighted average reflecting the distribution of licensed family home spaces across the country

[c] Average weighted by the distribution of children under two years of age

[d] Average weighted by the distribution of children aged two to five inclusive across the country

Source: The Report of the Task Force on Child Care, 1986.

The results indicate that licensed family care was the most expensive in Saskatchewan where the fee for a school-aged space was $3,770 per year. The licensed family care was the least expensive in Prince Edward Island and Quebec.

On average a licensed family care space was $3,531 per year while on average an unlicensed family care space was $3,100.

The results also indicate that the average cost of a licensed centre place was highest in British Columbia at $5,220 and lowest in New Brunswick at $2,580.

The survey indicated considerable variation from one province to another. This can be attributed to the local differences in wage scales and other program costs. However, this variation is also the result of the use operating grants in some provinces (Cooke, 1986, pp. 196-198).

See the sections "Cost to Parent(s)" under the programs "Licensed family day care".

viii) Regulation - For information about the child care legislation and regulation of the various provinces, see Table 4 Provincial Legislation, Regulation and Jurisdiction.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - According to Biemiller et al (1985), the schools are encouraging in-school child care centres. In the context of this changing role, he sees a trend toward the acceptance of the school as a partner in developing programs and services for preschool-age children and their families.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - Biemiller believes that parents and the community are taking a new role in early education. As evidence, he refers the involvement of community residents in establishing in-school child care centres and in determining related policies and programs.

In the context of these changing roles, Biemiller sees, in addition to the needs of the child, a trend toward the consideration of the needs of the family and the parent. He also sees the emergence of the idea of the parent as a partner not a client in early childhood programs and services (Biemiller et al, 1985, p. 16).

xi) **Staff:child** - Varies according to province in licensed programs.

xii) **Staff** - Varies with province.

xiii) **Staff Training** - Varies with province.

xiv) Group Composition - Varies.

xv) Group Size - Varies.

xvi) Space - Varies.

xvii) Activities - Varies.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: - No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY:

Licensed child care centres - "Quality child care programs are largely the result of an interplay between appropriate training, ratios, group size and the personal suitability. As a result much of the school-age child care literature stresses the importance of having at least one person with some kind of child-related and age-appropriate training with each group of children. It is the trained staff person who in conjunction with the director should assume the primary responsibility for the care of the children and the development of the program. Since good quality programs also require effective team work, there must also be a strong element of participation by other staff members in the planning process" (Kuiken, 1985, p. 8).

In their 1973 publication, The Child Welfare League of America suggests that the ratio for school-age children should be one staff for every 10 children. A recent publication by the Wellesley College School-Age Child

Care Project staff recommends a range of staff:child ratios beginning with a 1:8 ratios for 5 year olds and a 1:12 for older children (Kuiken, 1985, p. 8).

Baden, Genser, Levine and Seligson (1982) believe that programs should consider the special needs of school-age children for individual attention, times for solitary activity but sufficient numbers for group activities and games (Kuiken, 1985, p. 8).

Family Day Homes - Some children need to have an opportunity to pursue solitary activities and to have individual attention from a significant adult person. Similarly, some children with special needs may benefit from long-term individual placements (Kuiken, 1985, p. 9).

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

PROGRAM NAME: **Elementary School**
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children six and older (Kurian, 1988, p. 179).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy - Through comprehensive schools, social development of children is as important as academic performance (Holmes, 1983, p. 120).

ii) Operator - Local school boards.

iii) Location - Schools.

iv) Time of Operation - Generally, 8:30 or 9:00 a.m. to 3:30 or 4:00 p.m. There are 180-200 teaching days per year from September to June (Homes, 1983, p. 112).

v) Program Delivery Cost - In 1981-82, Canada spent $26 billion on education or 7.6% of the GNP (Kurian, 1988, p. 191).

vi) Funding - From municipal property taxes and provincial funds (Homes, 1983, p. 118).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Free to parents.

viii) Regulation - Provinces have Education Acts governing the operation of schools. Local boards of education administer the schools under the authority granted them through the Acts.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care-Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - Varies by school board; Ontario has a mandatory grade 1 and 2 ratio of 20:1.

xii) Staff - Same as kindergarten.

xiii) Staff Training - Usually a university degree and a year of professional teacher's training (Kurian, 1988, p. 193).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - An interdisciplinary approach to the three R's, plus science, social studies, music, art and physical education (Holmes, 1983, p. 113).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: About 60% of all school-aged children live in Ontario and Quebec and an additional 30% are in the western provinces. Nearly all children attend a public provincially operated school (Kurian, 1983, p. 188).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

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CZECHOSLOVAKIA

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

The Ministry of Health supervises the jesle (day nurseries) for children up to three years of age. The Ministry of Education is responsible for the materska skola (kindergartens) for three to six year olds. Coverage for the materska skola is now at 90%. They are formally linked to primary schools through their curricula.

Primary school begins at six years of age. It too has a curriculum which is formally linked to the next higher level, secondary education. Primary education is divided into two four-year segments. Language followed by math are stressed.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: In Czechoslovakia, the majority of women work. As a result, quality child care that is available from infancy onward is regarded as a basic need. In fact, women who are working are given priority for spaces when child care is limited (Sailor). In 1983, 83.4% of women 20-24 years old, 90.7% of women 25-29 years old, and 92% of women 30-34 years old were working (Sailor, 1980).

Parent involvement is important in Czechoslovakian child care (Sailor, 1980).

B. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: No mention.

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - Czechoslovakia provides 26 weeks of leave with income replacement at 90% of salary to the natural parents. For a period equivalent to the post-natal period, adopting mothers are entitled to collect the same maternity leave and income replacement as are natural mothers. The birth/adoption leave is subsidized by government and employer contributions to the social insurance programs. No mention was made of coverage for the self-employed. Czechoslovakia reserves the period of maternity leave for the mother alone (Cooke, 1986, p. 243).

Extended Child Care Leave - Czechoslovakia provides 26 weeks extended leave for mothers of one child and 78 weeks for mothers of two children (Cooke, 1986, p. 245). The provision of longer maternity leaves after the second and third child is given to encourage mothers to have more children.

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - Five days are alloted for statutory leave for care of sick children. Only the mother can take this leave. Working parents in Czechoslovakia are given reduced working hours, flexible work weeks and the right to refuse shiftwork.

Child Care Legislation - No mention.

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** The Health Ministry is responsible for the child care of children 0-3 years old. The Education Ministry is responsible for the child care of children 3-6 years old (Sailor, 1988).

The Health Ministry funds preschool (children 0-6 years old) and primary education is the responsibility of two education ministries in Prague and Bratislava (Holmes, 1983, p. 186).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** The child care system in Czechoslovakia is organized so that children 0-3 years old are cared for in creches and children 3-6 years old attend full-day public kindergarten. Kindergartens with boarding facilities are provided for children whose parents work irregular shifts (Cooke, 1986, p. 255).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** While about 91 per cent of all children 3-6 years old attend full-day public kindergarten, only about 20 percent of children under three are taken care of in creches. Most young children are cared for by their mothers. This is probably because the government offers a maternal allowance to mothers who have at least two children, one of whom is under the age of two (Sailor, 1980).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 6 years of age (Kurian, 1988, p. 292).

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGE PROGRAMS: The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Czechoslovakia is six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than six years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children six years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: Materska skola
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children ages 3-6 years old (Cooke, 1986, p. 256)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - Kindergartens have the purpose of "stimulating the growth of children's cognitive abilities and developing their speech and thinking." (Cooke, 1986, p. 255)

ii) Operator - Most kindergartens are operated by school authorities. However, some kindergartens are operated by factories, business enterprises and co-operative farms (Cooke, 1986, p. 255).

iii) **Location** - Approximately 90% of creches in Czechoslavakia are situated in residential neighbourhoods. The remainder are in or near factories (Cooke, 1986, p. 255).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Weekdays 7:00 a.m.-5:00 p.m. (Cooke, 1986, p. 255).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - **No mention.**

vi) **Funding** - The government subsidizes all fees in the formal child care system and pays these fees directly to the institution (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Costs to parents are high only when mothers voluntarily decide not to re-enter the labour force when the period of their maternity leave has been terminated (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination- Kindergarten has assumed the role of pre-elementary school education with linked curricula (Kurian, 1988, p. 296).

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - Involvement of the parents in kindergarten is of prime importance. For this reason, the kindergarten classes are located near the residential areas (Kurian, 1988, p.284).

xi) Staff:child - 1:14 (Kurian, 1988, p. 296).

xii) Staff - Staff turnover is high despite the average wage. The staff generally are younger women who have children and then subsequently take advantage of the paid maternity leave and benefits (Cooke, 1986, p.256).

xiii) Staff Training - Caregivers must have a high school leaving certificate as well as a specialization in teaching (Cooke, 1988, p. 255). Additional training at university while employed is encouraged (Kurian, p. 306).

xiv) Group Composition - Divided into classes in terms of age (Cooke, 1986, p. 255).

xv) **Group Size** - 25 in a group for three-year-olds and 30 for four- or five-year-old children (Cooke, 1988, p. 255).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - The centres utilize curricula developed by researchers with feedback from teachers in the field.

Educational goals are very important in preschool.

Part of the preschool program relates to helping young children understand and acquire the values of their society. Children are taught that societal needs come first and individual needs second.

Activities that encourage convergent rather than divergent thinking and behaviour are utilized in teaching cognitive skills. Each day, two 30-minute school work periods are taken to teach specific concepts and skills through a variety of activities. Reading or formal mathematics are not included in the teaching of cognitive skills although logic blocks are used to demonstrate spatial relationships and to improve perceptual motor skills.

Outdoor activities are included as much as possible in free play periods. Field trips are an important aspect of the program curricula.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Spaces are available for 90% of the two to five year olds although there are insufficient spaces for preschoolers in the highly populated areas. Two-earner families often wait months for a space (Kurian, 1988, p. 296).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: Turnover of caregivers is quite high.

D. SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: **Zakladnil skola**
[Primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged six to fourteen years.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - Education through collectivism and collective forms (eg. group problem solving). Equal access to education is stressed (Kurian, 1988, p. 295).

ii) **Operator** - Local district administrator who is responsible to the Ministry of Education.

iii) **Location** - Schools,

iv) **Time of Operation** - 8 a.m. - 1 p.m., 5 days per week (Holmes, 1983, p. 181).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - 5.2% of the national income goes toward education. Of this, 40% goes to primary schooling (Kurian, 1988, p. 304).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Free to parents (Holmes, 1983, p. 181).

viii) **Regulation** - Set by three regional educational ministries.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - 1:21.

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - Equivalent to four years of university. Teachers must show talent and interest in music and art (Kurian, 1988, p. 307).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - Average class size of 28 in 1984 (Kurian, 1988, p. 297).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Language and to a lesser degree, math are emphasized (Kurian, 1988, p. 297).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

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  4. Bornehaver [Kindergarten]
  5. Skolefritidshjem [School-based, outside school hours care]
     Fritidshjem [Centre-based, outside school hours care]

D. School-aged child care programs for older children
   1. Folkeskole
      [Primary schooling]
   2. Integrerede Institutioner
      [Preschool and school-age centre]
   3. Formidlet dagplege
      [Organized other family care]
   4. Skolefritidshjem
      [Outside school hours care
      school-based]
      Fritidshjem
      [Outside school hours care,
      centre-based]

DENMARK

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Although compulsory schooling does not begin before the age of seven, more than 85% of five to seven year olds attend a preschool program. Parents have a number of options from which to choose.

Basically, Bornehavelklasser [Preprimary schooling] come under the Ministry of Education and Integrerede Institutioner [Preschool and school-age centre], Formidlet Dagplege [Organized other family care], Bornehaver [Kindergarten], Skolefritidshjem [School-based outside school hours care] and Fritidshjem [Centre-based outside school hours care] come under the Ministry of Social Affairs and are operated by local authorities or private institutions. Since 1981, local authorities have been required to establish preschool programs although attendance is not compulsory.

Four of the types of care listed above (Integrerede Institutioner, Formidlet Dagplege, Skolefritidshjem and Fritidshjem) also serve older school-aged children. Folkeskole [Primary schools] are operated by local educational authorities under the ultimate responsibility of the Ministry of Education. Attendance is compulsory from the age of seven.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: According to Kamerman (1988), Denmark's child care policy is based on the philosophy that economic independence and hence labour force participation is necessary for women to achieve equality.

The Ministry of Social Affairs in 1976 defined the main purpose of day care to be social and educational in character, and a supplement to the upbringing in the home (Leira, 1987, p. 19).

The Danes believe that family, society, work, and culture, are all factors that affect the development of young children. Thus, they see the care of young children to be not purely a private concern (Cooke, 1986, p. 256). They see the public provision and/or support of child care as fulfilling several purposes:

1) contributing to the family economy;
2) facilitating the participation of mothers in the labour market;
3) fulfilling an educational and social service to children and their families; and,
4) functioning as "positive discrimination" or a preventive measure for children with special needs (Leira, 1987, p. 19).

The goal of the national day care policies of the 1980s is to provide day care for all children whose parents choose to have them attend. While universality is the theoretical goal [and while coverage is good], in practice, universal access to day care has not yet been established in Denmark (Leira, 1987, p. 19).

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** Bornehaver were established at the beginning of the 20th century by private organizations. According to Moss (1988), the main purpose in establishing them was not to promote women's employment but to support low income families.

Beginning in 1933, as a preventative measure, the government began to fund bornehaver whenever two-thirds of the children were from low income homes (Moss, 1988, p. 121).

In 1964, in response to a rapid increase in women in the labour force, and pressure from various sources, Parliament passed a law almost unanimously to extend public funding for child care services. The concept of child care as a preventative service disappeared, and services no longer were required to take low income families in order to be funded. Bornehaver and formidlet dagplege were included in this funding change (Moss, 1988, pp. 121-122).

In response to this law, there was a major development of services. As a result, in the period from 1965 to 1975, the places in bornehaver increased from 32,400 to 93,715 (Moss, 1988, p. 122).

As a result of an economic crisis in 1974, the growth in child care development slowed down. Nonetheless, the number of places in publicly-funded child care services increased by 56% between 1976 and 1986. Most of this increase took place in fritidshjem, integrerede institutioner, and in formidlet dagplege. In formidlet dagplege, the number of children cared for increased from 26,750 to 61,780 from 1976 to 1986. There has been little growth in bornehaver since 1976 (Moss, 1988, p. 122).

In the 1980's the Central Government, has been emphasizing the need to develop alternative, more flexible, and less costly forms of child care. It has also been promoting the need for closer cooperation between child care services and parents (Moss, 1988, p. 122).

Since January 1987, the way in which the Central Government funds child care services has changed. Previous to January 1987, the government provided specific grants for particular services e.g. child care. Since January 1987, the Central Government provides a block grant to the local authorities who then decide how to allocate the funds (Moss, 1988, p. 122).

Bornehavelklasser was developed in the mid-1960s. Originally, 5 and 6 year olds were eligible to attend. Since 1985, children 4 years and 10 months old are allowed to attend (Moss, 1988, p. 95).

C. LEGISLATION:

Regarding birth/adoption leave - In Denmark, mothers are given a birth/adoption leave of 28 weeks at ninety per cent of their salary (with a maximum amount of earnings). Four weeks of this leave are pre-natal and will be forfeited if not taken before the birth of the baby. The other 24 weeks of the leave are post-natal. This leave of absence is financed totally by the government (Cooke, 1986, p. 240).

Fathers are allowed to take two weeks of paid leave in order to allow them to assist the mother with the new infant. In addition, fathers are allowed to take the last 10 weeks of the maternity leave if the mother wishes to return to work (Cooke, 1986, p. 243)

Adopting mothers are entitled to take maternity leave for a period equivalent to the post-natal period available to natural mothers. During this time they are entitled to the same income replacement (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Fathers are entitled to share the adoption leave with the mother in the same way as they share birth leave (Cooke, 1986, p. 244)

Extended child care leave - Extended child care leave is not provided with an extension to initial 28 week maternity program (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Leave for workers with family responsibilities- Denmark does not provide an annual allotment of leave to care for sick children (Cooke, 1986, p. 245).

Child care legislation - **No mention.**

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** Child care falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Social Affairs' Department of Child and Youth Affairs. The townships have the responsibility to ensure that specific regulations and standards for child care programs are carried out (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

Kindergarten falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Social Affairs' Department of Child and Youth Affairs. Bornhavelklasser falls under the auspices of the Education Department (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** In Denmark, approximately 60% of the child care services are established publicly and 40% privately (Leira, 1987, p. 6).

The services available for children under three years old are as follows: vuggestuer; integrerede institutioner; and formidlet dagplege.

The services available for younger school-age children (4-7 years old) are as follows: integrerede institutioner; formidlet dagplege; bornehavelklasser; bornehaver; skolefritidshjem; and fritidshjem.

The services available for older school-age children (7-14) are as follows: integrerede institutioner; formidlet dagplege; skolefritidshjem; and fritidshjem.

Denmark has experimented with industrial child centres but has found them to be lacking. They have found that the children spend long periods travelling to get to the centres, the parents don't come to see them there, and the centres are a source of friction between employees and employers (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

No child care services are provided by employers. "Services that are linked to particular workplaces are incorporated into the system of publicly-funded child care" (Moss, 1988, p. 101).

There appear to be no special child care programs for shift workers (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

Handicapped children are integrated into the regular system (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

The Danish Child Welfare Commission reported that in 1979, almost 17% of all children, including those in recreational programs, were fully or partially subsidized (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** According to the 1981 Report from the Danish Child Welfare Commission, forty per cent of children under six were covered by the public child care system in 1979 (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

Sixty per cent of children under two are looked after by family child care providers. The majority of three-to-five-year-olds are looked after in centre care (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

With 10,000 children on waiting lists in 1979, there is a shortage of child care centre spaces, including spaces for school-aged children (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

According to Moss (1988), 60% of children have access to child care services available eight hours a day or longer and 87% of children in Denmark attend publicly-funded child care services. 51% attend bornehaver and integrerede institutioner, 8% attend formidlet dagplege, 25% attend bornehavelklasser, and 3% attend skolefritidshjem and fritidshjem. However, this involves some overlap since some children attend bornehavelklasser and skolefritidshjem or fritidshjem.

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 7 years of age (Moss, 1988, p. 89).

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:

The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Denmark is seven years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than seven years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children seven years or older are eligible to attend.

C) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** Integrerede Institutioner [Pre School and school-age centre]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 0-14 years (Moss, 1988, p. 19; Leira, 1987, p. 41).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Set up either by the local authority or by independent private bodies with whom the local authority makes an agreement (Leira, 1987, p. 35). The local health and welfare office administers them at the municipal level. The director is responsible for the daily operation and the educational program of the service (Leira, 1987, p. 35). They come under the Ministry of Social Affairs (Kurian, 1988, p. 312).

iii) **Location** - Distributed throughout Denmark.

iv) **Time of Operation** - The majority of integrerede institutioner are open the whole day. However, in addition to offering full-time care, some of them take a few children part-time (Leira, 1987, p. 41). Open from 7:00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m. (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - In order to qualify for government subsidy arrangements, applications for full or partial subsidies must be made to the local township (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - About Dkr. 532 per month (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - In 1985, there was a total of 18.1 personel for every 100 places. The staff:child ratio then was about 1:5.5 (Leira, 1987, p. 41).

xii) Staff - Staff is made up of professionally trained workers and untrained assistants. However, public day care does not generally include volunteers (Leira, 1987, p. 36).

xiii) Staff Training - About 4,000 of the 7,000 staff are professionally trained (57%). The professional staff have 3 years of training from a Teachers' Training College or an equivalent institution. In addition, continuing education courses are offered to day care staff (Leira, 1987, p. 36).

xiv) Group Composition - Age-integrated (Leira, 1987, p. 41).

xv) Group Size - Size of day care centres for mixed age groups vary widely from 30 to 200 children. No mention of whether this group is divided into smaller groups (Leira, 1987, p. 41).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In 1985, there were 705 day care centres for mixed age groups. These centres took care of approximately 38,300 children, of whom 6,400 were aged 0-6 years (Leira, 1987, p. 41).

According to Moss (1988), in 1986, 12,700 children aged 7 or over received outside school hours care in 750 of these centres.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: The training of Danish preschool and kindergarten teachers is generally thought to be of a high calibre. Among other things, their training prepares them to work with children and families of different social and cultural backgrounds (Leira, 1987, p. 36).

It is thought that the contact between children of different ages may have a positive effect. The younger children are thought to benefit in linguistic and intellectual development, and the older children are thought to benefit in socialization (Leira, 1987, p. 41).

Siblings are able to attend the same program regardless of their age (Leira, 1987, p. 41).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Formidlet dagplege**
[Organized other family care]

Formidlet dagplege is considered to be an integral part of the public day care services (Leira, 1987, p. 36).

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 0-2, some up to 10 or 11 years old (Moss, 1988, p. 19; Leira, 1987, p. 30).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - The local authority arrange for day care in private homes, and employ the child minder (Leira, 1987, p. 31).

iii) **Location** - Typically, formidlet dagplege is organized in the home of the minder. Lately, the Ministry of Social Affairs and the National Board of Social Welfare have been encouraging variation on this model (Leira, 1987, p. 31).

For instance, sometimes a married couple will provide day care for more than 5 children in the couple's home (Leira, 1987, p. 34).

In other places, childminders will work together in groups, cooperating in terms of training courses and vacations, and covering for one another when they are ill. In this type of arrangement, the child gets to know all of the minders (Leira, 1987, p. 35).

Sometimes, a day care centre may be in charge of a number of home-based childminders. In these cases, the local authority does not supervise the childminders. The day care does. When a childminder is ill, the children are taken care of at the centre. All children are acquainted with the centre (Leira, 1987, p. 35).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Generally, children can be looked after for up to 43 hours per week. Those parents who have irregular working hours can make individual arrangements. (Leira, 1987, p. 31)

43% of the 58,218 children in subsidized family day care were registered for 32 hours or less per week ("half-time" attendance) (Leira, 1987, p. 31).

The work week of the childminder is not supposed to exceed 50 hours from the arrival of the first child to the departure of the latest (Leira, 1987, p. 31).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - Varies with the level of services offered in each municipality. Generally, the average annual cost per place is DK 34,600 (Leira, 1987, p. 34).

vi) **Funding** - In order to qualify for government subsidy arrangements, applications for full or partial subsidies must be made to the local township (Cooke, 1988, p. 257).

2/3 of the operating costs are covered by the state and the municipality. Starting January 1, 1987, the operating costs will be covered solely by the parents and the municipality (Leira, 1987, p. 34).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Applications for subsidy are made to the local township (Cooke, 1988, p. 257).

The parents' fees cover about 1/3 of the day care centre costs (Leira, 1987 p. 34).

viii) **Regulation** - "Since 1964, a formalized family child care program has been in operation, in which providers are carefully screened, licensed and closely supervised by local township officials" (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - Close cooperation between parents and childminder is required in order ensure continuity in the children's daily life (Leira, 1987, p. 32).

xi) **Staff:child** - The childminder is allowed to care for up to 5 children at a time. The staff:child ratio was 3:64 in January 1985, when hours of attendance were transformed into full time places (Leira, 1987, p. 31).

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - No professional training is required. However, the family day care supervisor's office offers supervision and guidance and several of the local authorities offer 2-week courses and supplementary training for people employed as childminders. In addition, the National Board of Social Welfare has prepared some introductory literature and teaching material for childminders (Leira, 1987, p. 31).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - Maximum group size for a family day care home is seven, or three children under the age of three (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - The homes are provided with play material, toys, et cetera by the local family day care office (Leira, 1987, p. 32).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Of the children under two, 60 per cent are cared for by family child care providers (Cooke, 1986, p. 256).

According to Danmarks Statistik, 14.7% of children under one year and 28.0% of children 1-2 years old, are taken care of in formidlet dagplege. This means that of the children taken care of in public day care, 60% of those under one year and 51.3% of those 1-2 years old, are taken care of in formidlet dagplege (Leira, 1987, p. 29).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Considered to be preferable for many children because it resembles regular family life in that they are taken care of by a single adult in the company of other children of similar ages.
Less risk of infection in this form of day care than in institutions because the child is in less contact with other children (Leira, 1987, p. 33).

By working in groups, childminders can cooperate in covering for one another in terms of training courses and vacations. When a child care centre supervises childminders, the centre can provide care when the childminder is ill (Leira, 1987, p. 35).

This type of care is more flexible and less costly than day care centres (Leira, 1987, p. 33).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: The childminder can be socially isolated, lack contact with colleagues, not obtain adequate training, and suffer conflicts between the demands of the job and the demands of child-miner's family (Leira, 1987, p. 33).

Sometimes, the high turnover amongst the registered childminders can create problems for the children, the parents and local authority (Leira, 1987, p. 33).

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Bornehavelklasser**
Preschool classes (Cook, 1986, p. 256)
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 5-6 (Moss, 1988, p. 20). Since 1985, children 4 years and 10 months old are eligible to start pre primary school (Moss, 1988, p. 95; Leira, 1987, p. 43).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - To introduce children who have remained at home throughout their early years to group care (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

ii) Operator - The local school authorities under the Ministry of Education (Moss, 1988, p. 96). They have to provide places in preschool classes for children 1-2 years before statutory school age (Leira, 1987, p. 43). The local education authority administers the classes. It also decides whether to introduce the early school-start e.g. 4 years, 10 months (Leira, 1987, p. 43).

iii) Location - Bornehavelklasser takes place mostly in classes that are attached to the primary schools (Moss, 1988, p. 97; Leira, 1987, p. 43).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Unlike bornehaver which are day-long operations, bornehavelkasser are usually open for a morning session of 3-4 hours, with no midday meal, for a total of about 15 to 20 hours per week (Moss, 1988, p. 92; Leira, 1987, p. 43). Hours are about the same as first year of primary school, sometimes a bit shorter (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

Since preschool is only part-time, children from families where both parents work, generally require supplementary care. For this reason, they generally attend a recreation centre, a day care centre, subsidized family day care, or unregistered, private childminders as well (Leira, 1987, p. 43).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Subsidies for nursery school/kindergarten are as follows:

(1) New building programs are financed through low-interest loans from private sources or from the state. Sometimes, the state will provide a grant of 35% of the building costs if the township matches the 35%. The remaining 30% must be raised by other means.

(2) Property maintenance is completely publicly-funded. The state provides four-sevenths and the township provides three-sevenths (Cooke, 1986, p. 257)

The local authorities bear all the expense of providing preschool (Leira, 1987, p. 43).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No cost (Leira, 1987, p. 43).

viii) Regulation - Administered by the local authority. No mention of who regulates (Leira, 1987, p. 43).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - Usually 20-30 children per group with one group only (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: 90% of children attend bornehavelklasser (Cooke, 1986, p. 256; Leira, 1987, p. 43). The areas with most bornehaver provision have least bornhavelklasser. For instance the provision of bornehavelklasser in Denmark is less in the Copenhagen area because there is more bornehaver provision there. There is less bornhavelklasser provided there for another reason as well -- busy and dangerous roads make it difficult to get children between bornehavelklasser and centres providing outside school hours care (Moss, 1988, p. 100).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

4. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Bornehaver**
Kindergarten (Cooke, 1986, p. 257)
Nursery School
[Kindergarten]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 3-6 years old (Moss, 1988, p. 90). Some of the bornehaver accept children from the age of 2. Most children, 80,000, are between the ages of 3 and 5 (Leira, 1987, p. 39).

Since nearly all child care centres have waiting lists, the townships have established priorities for child care placement. A child of a family in special need has priority for a child care space. For instance, when the parents are single, when there is an illness in the family and when the child is handicapped, children are assured of a place in care (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

Bornehaver coverage is variable. In 1983, while 56% of 3-6 year olds attended public day care, there was a range of coverage from 86% and 22% (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

Children of ethnic minorities are less likely to attend bornehaver than the general population. However, there is some evidence that the demand for child care by ethnic minority families is increasing (Moss, 1988, p. 101).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - According to Cooke (1986), in 1976, three quarters of the programs were privately operated by non-profit organizations. More recent statistics quoted by Moss (1988) indicate that 50% of bornehaver are operated by communes and 50% by private organizations.

According to Leira (1987), bornehaver are set up by either the local authority or by independent private bodies under the direction of the local authorities responsible to the Ministry of Social Affairs.

iii) **Location** - No mention.

iv) **Time of Operation** - Full or part-time care available (Cooke, 1986, p. 256). Bornehaver are available for 10 hours a day or more. Open all year round (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

According to Leira (1987), bornehaver are generally open for 10-12 hours per day. However, some of the day nurseries have shorter hours. They are designed for children of families where both one or both parents are at home or work shorter hours.

v) __Program Delivery Cost__ - The average cost per place for the country was DK 28,100 in 1985 (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

vi) __Funding__ - Subsidies for kindergarten are as follows:

(1) New building programs are financed through low-interest loans from private sources or from the state. Sometimes, the state will provide a grant of 35% of the building costs if the township matches the 35%. The remaining 30% must be raised by other means.

(2) Property maintenance is completely publicly-funded. The state provides four-sevenths and the township provides three-sevenths.

(3) On-going operations receive 40% of the funding by the state and 30% of the funding by the township. Overall, state subsidies cover about 80% of child care costs. Applications for subsidy are made to the local township (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Parent user fees cover about 20% of child care costs. When the program is an industrial one, employer contributions cover this 20%. User fees are geared to parental income. In 1984, the maximum fee was about $100 (Cdn) per month for a space (Cooke, 1986, 257).

According to Moss (1988), the contributions that the parents make vary according to the contributions made by the local authorities and the average monthly cost to parents is Dkr. 1050.

In order to qualify for government subsidy arrangements, applications for full or partial subsidies must be made to the local township (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - Usually one worker for every 6-7 children (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

According to Leira (1987), in 1985 for every 100 day nursery places there were 17.1 full-time employees, 9.8 of whom were professionally trained. Extrapolating from this, the staff:child ratio is approximately 1:5.8.

xii) Staff - Volunteers are not usually utilized by public day care services (Leira, 1987, p. 36).

xiii) Staff Training - In 1985, of the staff in bornehaver (kindergarten), 9,200 were trained as kindergarten teachers or nurses, and 6,800 had no professional training (Leira, 1987, p. 39).

The professional staff have 3 years of training from a Teachers' Training College or equivalent institution. Ongoing training courses are offered to day care staff. In general, the training of Danish pre-school and kindergarten teachers is thought to be of high calibre. It is considered good preparation for dealing with children and families of different social and cultural backgrounds (Leira, 1987, p. 36).

xiv) Group Composition - Usually sibling groups. Usually two or more groups, sometimes of mixed age, sometimes divided according to age (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

xv) Group Size - Generally, bornehaver have 2-3 groups of about 20 children (Leira, 1987, p. 39).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - The educational program of the bornehaver is a continuation from that of the creches. However, a greater emphasis is placed on learning. This learning includes both the acquisition of knowledge and the acquisition of practical and intellectual skills. While structured educational activities are part of the daily program, they are organized so that children alternate between free play and planned activities (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

Generally, meals are not provided except in the case of breakfast for the children who arrive between 6 a.m. and 8 a.m. and a light meal in the afternoon (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

Some children 5-6 years of age attend part-time preschool classes as well as bornehaver (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: 87% of children attend kindergarten full-time. Most of the part-time places are located in

Jutland (Moss, 1988, p. 93).

Highest levels of kindergarten coverage are found in the Copenhagen area, especially in the city and the suburbs, where three-quarters of children aged 3-6 years attend. In the country as a whole, only half attend. Less than half of all children attend child care in small towns and rural areas (Moss, 1988, p. 100).

In 1985, 93,803 children were attending 2,200 day nurseries. Approximately, 14,300 children were attending part-time and 82,300 were attending full time (Leira, 1987, p. 39).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Danish day care centres are generally considered to be of a high quality (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

Whenever children are ill, the local authorities supply a home help who looks after them in their own home. For this service, the parents pay an amount based on their income (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: There is some lack of flexibility of the opening hours that creates problems for some parents. As a result, some parents must use either registered or unregistered childminders to supplement the care of bornehaver (Leira, 1987, p. 40).

5. **PROGRAM NAMES: Skolefritidshjem**
[Outside school hours care, school-based]

Fritidshjem
[Outside school hours care, centre-based]

PROGRAM USER:

Skolefritidshjem - Children aged 5-9 years old. This care is available for children attending pre primary school and continues for primary school children. Children from families with lower incomes and single parents have priority (Moss, 1988, pp. 20 and 92).

Fritidshjem - Children aged 6-14, mostly 6-10. This care is available for children attending pre primary school and continues for primary school children. There is another program Fritidsklub which provides activities for children 10-14 years old (Moss, 1988, pp. 20, 95 and 112).

Skolefritidshjem and Fritidshjem - According to Leira (1987), recreational centres are intended for the age group 6-10 years and the majority of the children who attend these centres belong to this age group.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Provided directly by the local authorities or by private organizations who are funded by local authorities (Moss, (1988, p. 112). In 1976, two thirds of the programs were privately operated, usually by non-profit organizations (Cooke, 1986, p. 257).

iii) **Location**
Skolefritidshjem - At a centre (Moss, 1988, p. 91).
Fritidshjem - School-based (Moss, 1988, p. 91).

iv) **Time of Operation**
Skolefritidshjem - Outside school hours (Moss, 1988, p. 91).
Fritidshjem - Outside school hours (Moss, 1988, p. 91).

Generally open 54 hours a week, from 7:00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m. so children can attend before and after school.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** Subsidies for before-and after-school care are as follows:

Skolefritidshjem

- Funded by the education committees of local authorities (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

Fritidshjem

- Funded by the social welfare committees (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

Skolefritidshjem and fritidshjem

(1) New building programs are financed through low-interest loans from private sources or from the state. Sometimes, the state will provide a grant of 35% of the building costs if the township matches the 35%. The remaining 30% must be raised by other means.

(2) Property maintenance is completely publicly-funded. The state provides four-sevenths and the township provides three-sevenths.

(3) On-going operations receive 45% of the funding by the state and 35% of the funding by the township (Cooke, 1986, p. 257)

vii) Cost to Parent(s)

Skolefritidshjem - Parents make

contributions that vary with their income. However, this contribution also depends on the extent to which local authorities fund services (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

Some other family outside school hours care are funded from public and parents' contributions with parents making contributions that vary according to their income (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

Fritidshjem - Parents pay according to income and where they live, since local authority funding varies. The cost to parents averaged Dkr. 532 a month in 1986 (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination**
Fritidshjem - Generally, children are expected to make their own way to and from school (Moss, 1988, p. 91).

The program of the recreation centres is designed to supplement the program of school with play and sports (Leira, 1987, p. 42).

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - There was a total of 13.4 staff for every 100 places. Extrapolating from this, the staff:child ratio was about 1:7.5 (Leira, 1987, p. 42).

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training -
Skolefritidshjem and Fritidshjem - Of the 6,400 employees, 2,000 were trained professionally (31%) (Leira, 1987, p. 42).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - Generally, 40 to 80 children attend a recreation centre (Leira, 1987, p. 42).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities **Fritidshjem** - The recreational centres give the children the opportunity to enjoy play, sports, and other activities. In addition, they give the children an opportunity to socialize with other children and adults when school is finished for the day and they have the need to relax and talk about their day (Leira, 1987, p. 42).

Skolefritidshjem - In 1986, there were 157 schools providing this service for 4762 children, 3286 of whom were 7 to 9. The rest of the children were under 7 (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In 1985, Denmark had 902 recreational centres, with a total of 47,536 places (Leira, 1987, p. 42).

According to Moss (1988), levels of provision are highest in Copenhagen, covering 40-50% of children, and lowest in the least urbanised areas.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. PROGRAM NAME: Folkskole
[Primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 7-10 years (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Local education authorities (Kurian, 1988, p. 316).

iii) Location - In schools but 6% of children are taught at home (Kurian, 1988, p. 313).

iv) Time of Operation - School hours increase as children get older. At seven years old, they attend 15-22 hours a week. At ten years old, they attend 20-27 hours a week. The local authorities set school hours. School may start as early as 8:00 a.m. and finish as late as 3:00 p.m. Even for individual children, school hours may vary from day to day (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

Each year, students have 12-13 weeks holiday - seven weeks in the summer, two weeks at Christmas, two weeks at Easter, one week in the middle of the Autumn term, and in some areas, one week in the middle of the Winter term (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Free to parents (Kurian, 1988, p. 313).

viii) Regulation - The Folkeskole Act of 1975 regulates officially. The responsible body is the Ministry of Education (Kurian, 1988, p. 316). The municipal authorities have the power to issue their own guidelines (Holmes, 1983, p. 206).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - Strong tradition of parent involvement in the schools and in education generally (Kurian, 1988, p. 312).

xi) Staff:Child - 1:19 (Kurian, 1988, p. 313).

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - Three and a half to four years at teachers training college (Kurian, 1988, p. 319).

xiv) Group Composition - Children move through school as a group (Kurian, 1988, p. 313).

xv) Group Size - Maximum of 28 (Kurian, 1988, p. 313).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Generally, schools do not provide meals (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Integrerede Institutioner** [Pre School and School-age Centre]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 0-14 years old (Moss, 1988, p. 19).

For a description of Integrerede Institutioner, look under "A) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Formidlet dagplege** [Organized Other Family Care]

For a description of Formidlet dagplege, look under "A) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

4. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Skolefritidshjem**
[Outside school hours
care, school-based]

Fritidshjem
[Outside school hours
Care, centre-based]

For a description of Skolefritidshjem and Fritidshjem, look under "A) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

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FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY (WEST GERMANY)

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

In the Federal Republic of Germany, schools are administered by the Ministry of Education. However, there is not a single ministry that is responsible for child care policy. Education is basically free. Parents have to pay for meals. Child care is funded by subsidies from the government, funds from volunteer organizations, and parental fees (the parental fees are tax-deductible). The particular combination of funding sources varies with the particular program type.

Tagesmutter [other organized family care] which provides care for mostly poor and deprived children is funded in approximately equal parts by the government, volunteer organizations, and parents. Kindergarten which provides care for mostly middle-class children is funded by government subsidies and parental fees. The particular funding combination for horte [centre-based outside school hours care] is not mentioned.

Vorschulklass [pre primary schooling] is available for children 5 and 6 years old. It is funded primarily by private organizations.

Primary schooling starts at age 6 if the child is developmentally prepared. If not prepared, space providing, the child attends vorschulklass [preschool] or kindergarten [kindergarten] for another year. If there is not a space, the child receives special assistance in primary school class.

2.8% of school-aged children attend horte [centre-based outside school hours care]. Horte is after school child care for children 6-14 years old. It is generally operated and always funded by the local authorities.

Kindergarten and vorschulklass coverage varies with the region. In general, when kindergarten coverage is high, vorschulklass is low, and vice versa. Overall, six percent of 5-6 year olds attend vorschulkass. The highest vorschulklass coverage is 27% in Berlin. Overall, 75% of 3-6 year olds in Germany attended kindergarten in 1981.

Kindergarten operates full and part-time. Whether children attend full or part-time depends on the area where they live, the demand for kindergarten in that area, and the preference of the parents. Most full-time kindergarten is in urban areas and most part-time kindergarten is in rural areas.

Parents tend to use tagesmutter, nurseries, and care in their own home until children are 4 or 5 years old. If there are two or more children in a family in need of care, it becomes more economical for parents to hire one childminder than to pay for a number of child care places. At such a point parents tend to supplement the publicly funded care with childminders.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: According to Kamerman (1988), the policy approach the FRG government has taken to child care is to leave individuals to work out their own solutions. Generally, in the FRG publicly-provided child care tends to occur in a social welfare context (Cooke, 1983, p. 253).

B. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Kindergartens have been an institution in Germany since the 19th century. There were originally two types: educationally-oriented kindergartens for the middle-classes; and institutions for the neglected children of working class families.

At various points in history there has been a clash between those whose operators wanted kindergartens to be part of the public education system, free and compulsory, and private organizations who wanted to keep kindergartens in the private sector. In the 1970's, kindergartens were examined as a means of improving children's educational performance, and attempts were made to integrate them into the school system. Kindergartens remained outside the educational jurisdiction but they gained wide acceptance as an important experience for all children.

Between 1965 and 1976, there was a modest increase in the number of nursery places. There has been little

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY continued

change since then however, and the provision of nurseries remains confined to children "at risk".

Recently, Federal Government policy has put a new emphasis on increasing freedom of choice for women. They are attempting to improve conditions so that women can stay at home longer and they are trying to improve public child care. With a wider recognition of the importance of education for under 3 year olds, the government has officially recognized that child care should not be limited to children "at risk". They have also stressed the importance of increasing the flexibility of the hours child care operates and on finding new solutions to child care shortages. However, the state and the local authorities fund child care and they are currently short of funds. According to the DNR, "The realistic perspective about childcare in Germany is not so much a question of expansion, but how to prevent cuts in expenditure" (Moss, 1988, p. 116).

According to Townson (1985), the FRG had planned to change some aspects of its maternity benefit program. One change it wanted was to allow small businesses to claim a refund of the maternity benefit payments they pay to their female employees. The government wanted to introduce this as a way of alleviating the burden of this high cost on such firms. In addition, the government planned to introduce in January 1, 1986 a "nursing allowance" of up to DM600 a month for the first ten months after the birth of a child. This allowance would enable either parent to stay home and care for the child. This allowance is just one part of the "equalization of family burdens" scheme being carried out by the FRG.

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - The FRG provides 14 weeks of leave with income replacement at 100%. Six weeks of the leave must be taken as pre-natal leave and eight weeks as post-natal leave. If the pre-natal leave is not taken prior to the birth, it is forfeited (Cooke, 1983, p. 241). The worker's job is protected during leave (Townson, 1985, p. 26).

In order to qualify for the leave and benefits, a worker must have worked for 12 weeks between the tenth and the fourth month before delivery (Cooke, 1983, p. 242).

Maternity leave is financed through the social insurance program. In the FRG, the social insurance plan does not assume the full cost of parental leave. While women are paid a flat-rate social security benefit for 32 weeks, during the first 14 weeks, employers are required to top-up the flat-rate benefit to 100% of the average net pay (Townson, 1985, p. 26; Cooke, p. 243).

In the FRG, there is no legislation entitling adopting parents to either leave or benefits (Cooke, 1985, p. 244).

Extended Child Care Leave - There is an extended leave of eighteen weeks available at a flat-rate benefit (Cooke, 1983, p. 245).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - In the FRG, there is a statutory entitlement for either father or mother to take leave to take care of sick children. The annual allotment of leave is five days per worker at 100% of salary (Cooke, 1983, p. 248).

Child Care Legislation - No mention.

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** In the FRG, there is not a single ministry that is responsible for child care policy. Legal responsibility under the constitution, falls under the federal government. However, the actual responsibility is transferred to the Laender, which are the provinces or states. Seven of the eleven Laender have specific laws regulating the day care or preschool system (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** In the FRG, children under three years old are generally cared for outside of the home by non-relatives. The out-of-home licensed child care options for children under 3 years old are creches (krippen) or tagesmutter (Day Mother Projects).

Child care options for children 3-6 years old are kindergarten, tagesmutter, and kinderhort (Cooke, 1983, p. 258). These options are all outside of the educational system. Vorschulklass is pre-primary schooling for five and six year olds.

For children 6-12 years old, there is publicly funded, centre-based, outside school hours care (Moss, 1988, p. 109).

Parents tend to use tagesmutter, nurseries, and care in their own home until children are about 4 or 5 years old. As children get older, however, and as the proportion of them attending school or publicly-funded child care services increases, parents tend to use supplementary services like childminders when the children are not at kindergarten or school (e.g. during the 2 hour lunch break and before and after school) (Moss, 1988, p. 102).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** In 1977, 6.8% of children less than three years old were cared for by non-relative out-of-home care (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

In 1982, 80% of 5 year olds, 69% of 4 year olds, and 36% of 3 years were in publicly-funded services including schools (Moss, 1988, p. 99).

In 1981, more than 75% of children between ages 3 to 6 were cared for in kindergarten (Cooke, 1988, p. 258).

In 1985, 6% of 5-6 year olds attended vorschulklass [pre primary schooling] (Moss, 1988, p. 73).

In 1982, there were 2400 centres (primarily horte) providing care for 86830 children or 2.8% of 6-10 year olds. The level of provision varies between states. For instance, in Berlin, 21% of 6-10 year olds attended horte; in Hamburg, 9% of 6-10 year olds; and in Rheinland-Pfalz, 1%. (Moss, 1988, p. 109).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. **AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING:** 6 years old unless the child is not considered to be ready for primary education. In this case, 6 and 7 year olds may attend 'kindergarten' or 'pre-primary education' (Moss,1988, p. 89).

B. **DEFINITIONS OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:** The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in the FRG is six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than six years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children six years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. PROGRAM NAME: Tagesmutter

[Other family caregiver]

Similar to agency-sponsored family child care in other countries (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

PROGRAM USER: Designed to serve poor and deprived families, not directed to the average working family (Cooke, 1983, p. 258)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - No mention.

iii) Location - No mention.

iv) Time of Operation - No mention.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Child care services are funded by government subsidies, sponsoring organizations and parent fees, roughly one-third each (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - About one-third of the total cost. Recently, there has been a move towards paying a smaller percentage so that now they are paying about 20% in some states. Those who are unable to pay the fees receive assistance from the social welfare system. Fees are tax-deductible (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

viii) **Regulation** - Seven of the eleven Laender have specific laws regulating the day care or preschool system (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - No mention.

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - No mention.

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Vorschulklass**
[Pre primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 5 to 6 years old (Moss, 1988, p. 19).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Provided mostly by publicly-funded private organizations. No employer-operated pre primary schooling in Germany (Moss, 1988, pp. 96 and 101).

iii) **Location** - Generally attached to primary schools (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

iv) **Time of Operation** - No mention.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Funded mostly by private organizations (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Generally free to parents, although children are generally charged for meals (Moss, 1988, p. 92).

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:Child** - No mention.

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) **Group Composition** - Sometimes of mixed age, sometimes divided according to age (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

xv) **Group Size** - Normally one group of 20 - 30 children (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: There is a considerable variation in pre primary provision amongst the different parts of Germany. The highest provision of pre primary schooling is in Berlin (27% of 5-7 year olds), Hamburg

(26%), Schleswig-Holstein (14%) and Bremen (13%). The lowest provision is in Rheinland-Pfalz (1.6%), Saarland (1.6%), Bavaria (2.6%), Hessen (3.5%) and Baden-Wurtenberg (3.3%). In general, where there is the most kindergarten provision there is the least pre primary schooling and vice versa (Moss, 1988, p. 100).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

3. **PROGRAM NAME: Kindergarten**
[Kindergarten]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 2 1/2 to 6. In some areas a small number of children aged 5 and 6 go to pre-primary schooling. Children attend kindergarten until they leave for compulsory school or until they start pre primary schooling (Moss, 1988, pp. 90 and 95).

Kindergarten services in Germany are used less by lower income and working class families. Similarly, they are used less by the children of ethnic minorities (only two-thirds the level of attendance of other children). However, the level of kindergarten attendance increases the longer families have lived in Germany (Moss, 1988, p. 101).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Private organizations provide 70% of kindergarten places, and 90% of these are operated by church organizations. (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

Operated by a variety of churches, welfare, and voluntary social organizations as well as by local authorities (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

It is rare to find employer provided kindergarten in Germany. However, where it is provided, the firms are generally large or in the public service (Moss, 1988, p. 101).

iii) Location - Generally independent institutions. Sometimes they are attached to nurseries and/or a centre-based outside school hours care service (Moss, 1988, p. 97)

iv) Time of Operation - The number of hours of provision is limited. There are relatively few all day places and these are allocated on a priority basis, working parents, lone parents and lower income families (Moss, 1988, pp. 91-92).

Some kindergartens are open from 8:00 a.m. to noon. Others are open from 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 (with a two hour lunch break). Full-time kindergartens are open from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. However, in all types of kindergarten, the hours are consistent each day (Moss, 1988, p. 103)

Generally open from 8:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon and may reopen from 2:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. None of the kindergartens operating these hours provide lunch so children who attend both morning and afternoon must go home for 2 hours between sessions.

Some kindergartens are open from 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 or 5:00 p.m., or from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. and provide meals. Only 12% of all children in kindergarten attend kindergartens of this type (Moss, 1988, p. 92).

In Germany, a higher proportion of children attend kindergarten part-time, for 4 hours a day, than full-time. This occurs because (1) kindergartens are only open in the morning, (2) parents do not return children after lunch, or (3) because there is a shortage of places and so different groups of children use the service in the morning and afternoon (Moss, 1988, p. 93).

"In Berlin, nearly all children go full-time, in Hamburg 47% and Bremen 39%: in Baden-Wurtenberg, Rheinland-Pfalz and Saarland however the proportion is less than 5%. Lowest levels of kindergarten provision are in the countryside, where full-time care is very rare and different groups of children attending in the morning and afternoon is most common" (Moss, 1988, p. 99).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Mainly funded by public sources (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - The cost to parents varies with the amount funded by the local authorities (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

viii) **Regulation** - The state is responsible. Seven of the eleven Laender have specific laws regulating the day care or preschool system (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - Generally 2 adults for each group of 20 -25 children (Moss, 1988, p. 98).

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) **Group Composition** - Sometimes mixed age groups, sometimes groups divided according to age (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

xv) **Group Size** - Normally more than one group of 20 - 30 children (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In 1981, more than 75% of children between ages 3 to 6 were cared for in kindergarten (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

"There are major variations [in coverage] between the different States, ranging from 50 - 60 places for every 100 children aged 3 - 6 in Berlin, Hamburg, Niedsachsen and Schleswig-Holstein to 95% or more in Baden-Wurtenberg, Hessen, Rheinland-Pfalz and Saarland" (Moss, 1988, p. 99).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. PROGRAM NAME: Tagesmutter
[Other family caregiver]

Similar to agency-sponsored family child care in other countries (Cooke, 1983 p. 258).

PROGRAM USER: Designed to serve poor and deprived families, not directed to the average working family (Cooke, 1983, p. 258)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Grundschule**
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 6-10 years (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Local level cities and counties (Kurian, 1988, p. 461).

iii) **Location** - Schools.

iv) **Time of Operation** - Starts at 8:00 a.m. and ends between 12:00 and 1:00 p.m. Every day is not always the same. For instance, sometimes school hours end before noon. In some states, schools are open every Saturday or on alternate Saturdays, and in some states, there are more afternoon classes (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

Each year there are 13 weeks of holidays with 6 weeks in the summer, 2 weeks at Christmas and Easter and two other breaks, at Penticost and in the autumn (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Publicly-funded (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - None to parents.

viii) Regulation - Typically at the state level Ministry of Education (Kurian, 1988, p. 461).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:Child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - Three years of teacher training college (Kurian, 1988, p. 464).

xiv) Group Composition - Small groups and intergrade activities are encouraged (Kurian, 1988, p. 452).

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Meals are not provided by the schools during or at the end of the school day. Children bring their own food and eat it during short breaks. For those children whose school day ends at lunchtime, there is no lunchtime break (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Horte** [Outside School Hours Care]

PROGRAM USER: School-aged kids who cannot go home after school (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Operator not mentioned but offered by the Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

iii) **Location** - No mention.

iv) **Time of Operation** - No mention.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - No mention.

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Parents pay fees (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

viii) **Regulation** - Seven of the eleven Laender have specific laws regulating the day care or preschool system (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Provide lunch, guidance for homework, and supervised play (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Very few places are available (Cooke, 1983, p. 258).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

FINLAND

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FINLAND

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Responsibility for child care policy in Finland falls to the Ministry for Social Affairs and Health. The municipal level communes and local school boards are the most common operators but estimates are that they are able to provide less than half of the spaces needed (Cooke, 1983, p. 259). Child care is generally state funded with parent fees being based on their ability to pay. Education is free.

Licensed family child care centres [other family care] are individuals employed by the communes to provide care. About one-quarter of all spaces are provided by these caregivers. About 90% offer full-time care.

Paivakoti [Preprimary schooling] serves three to six year old children. Funds are from municipal sources but also employers, individuals and voluntary associations. They are considered to be part of the municipal school system.

Licensed child care centres [centre-based outside school hours care] serves all children with priority given to those from single parents homes. Most are operated by municipal level communes and are primarily publicly funded.

Primary schools are free to all children seven years and older. They are operated by local school boards under the authority of provincial governments. The curriculum attempts to be child-centred.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. **CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY:** No mention.

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** No mention.

C. **LEGISLATION:** The Child Care Act took effect in 1973. Child Care became part of the social services system as a result of the Social Welfare Act and the Planning and State Subsidies Act of 1984. Nevertheless the Act of 1973 remains in force as a separate law. Among other things, it defines the educational goals of child care (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p.2).

Birth/Adoption Leave - Finland provides 47 weeks of maternity leave. The amount of benefits are 80% of insured salary with a maximum amount of earnings insured. There is no length of service required for workers who wish to claim maternity benefits. Maternity leave is financed through employer and employee contributions (Cooke, 1983, pp.241-243).

For a period equivalent to the post-natal period, adopting mothers are eligible to draw the same maternity leave and income replacement as are natural mothers (Cooke, 1983, p. 244).

In Finland, fathers are entitled to share the birth/adoption leave. They are entitled to take 75-100 days of paid leave after the first 100 days of the mother's leave. In fact, in 1982, 21% of eligible Finnish fathers did so. Fathers are also able to share the adoption leave with the mother. Finland provides two weeks of paid leave for fathers. This leave is deducted from the total period of 234 days of maternity or paternity leave (Cooke, 1983, p. 244).

Extended Child Care Leave - Finland provides a six month period of extended child leave without pay (Cooke, 1983, p. 247).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - No mention of leave to care for sick children (Cook, 1983, p. 247).

Child Care Legislation - No mention.

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** The Ministry for Social Affairs and Health is responsible for child care policy in Finland (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** In Finland, there is licensed and unlicensed child care. The three types of child care programs are licensed child care centres, licensed family child care homes operated by the local government, and private child care centres. The unlicensed child care is unlicensed family child care. In 1984, 70% of children attending formal child care attended child care centres operated by the local government. Three and one half percent of children attending formal child care were in private child care centres and 27% of chldren attending formal child care were enrolled in family child care homes (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** It has been estimated that available spaces cover less than 50% of requirements. The percentage of school-aged child care coverage is not mentioned. However, in 1982, 8030 school-aged children attended after-school child care programs (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. **AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING:** Seven years of age (Kurian, 1988, p. 390)

B. **DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:** The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Finland is the term after the child turns seven years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children will be defined as programs that children less than seven years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children seven years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** Licensed family child care centres
[Other family care]

PROGRAM USER: Children under seven years of age (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 4).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - Day care is a social service and an educational activity. It calls for continuous cooperation with parents. Its purpose is to enable every pre-school child to develop to the full extent of his capabilities. (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p.6).

ii) **Operator** - Individual caregivers employed by the communes which are the local unit of government (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

iii) **Location** - Family homes.

iv) **Time of Operation** - 90% offer full-time care (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Subsidized by the State (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 4).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - No mention.

viii) **Regulation** - Ministry for Social Affairs and Health is responsible (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - From the Day Care Act, "The object of day care is to help parents bring their children up and to co-operate with parents in promoting a well-balanced development of personality" (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 6).

xi) **Staff:child** - 1:4 including the caregivers own children under seven years of age (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 4).

xii) **Staff** - Usually parents (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 4).

xiii) **Staff Training** - Recommended 250 period course plus 16 periods of first aid entitles caregiver to higher rate of pay (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 5).

xiv) **Group Composition** - Maximum of four

(National Board of Social Welfare, 1983, p. 4).

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Almost 27% of all spaces are in licensed family child care (Cooke, p. 259).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** Paivakoti
Kindergartens
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Three to six year olds (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - Day care is a social service and an educational activity. It calls for continuous cooperation with parents. Its purpose is to enable every pre-school child to develop to the full extent of his capabilities (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 6).

ii) Operator - Since 1968, kindergartens have been included in the municipal school system (Kurian, 1988, p. 391).

iii) Location - Most are located in cities (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

iv) Time of Operation - No mention.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Financed by municipalties, industrial enterprises, individuals and voluntary associations, some of which receive state subsidies (Kurian, 1988, p.392).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Parents pay 12% of the costs of care; the state 48% and the municipality 40% (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

viii) Regulation - Standards of care and instruction are supervised by the Ministry of Social Affairs (Kurian, 1988, p. 392 and Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - From the Day Care Act, "The object of day care is to help parents bring their children up, and to cooperate with parents in promoting a well-balanced development of personality" (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 6).

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - Some private kindergartens employ teachers from England (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

xiii) Staff Training - Training consists of upper secondary school and matriculation exam or comprehensive school and vocational studies in the day care field; two years leading to the Preprimary Teacher's Certificate (Kurian, 1988, p. 403 and Holmes, 1983, p. 280).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Creative activities intended to facilitate the development of social skills and vocabulary (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** Licensed child care centres [Centre-based outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: All children; priority given to children of single parents (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - Day care is a social service and an educational acitivity. It calls for continuous cooperation with parents. Its purpose is to enable every pre-school child to develop to the full extent of his capabilities (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 6).

ii) **Operator** - Communes which are the local unit of government. They provide almost 70% of all the country's child care spaces (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

iii) **Location** - No mention.

iv) **Time of Operation** - No mention.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - State 44%, communities and private organizations 39% and parents 17% (National Board of Social Welfare, 1983, p. 2).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Fees are subsidized by the communes and are related to the parents' ability to pay (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - "The object of day care is to help parents bring their children up, and to cooperate with parents in promoting a well-balanced development of personality" (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 6).

xi) **Staff:child** - 3:20 for 3-6 year olds and 3:12 for 1-2 year olds (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 3).

xii) **Staff** - One kindergarten teacher or social educator and a children's nurse must staff each group of children (National Board of Social Welfare, p. 4).

xiii) **Staff Training** - The director of centre must be a kindergarten teacher (3 years training) or social educator (4 years training) (National Board of Social Welfare, p. 3).

xiv) Group Composition - Children with special needs are generally integrated into regular programs (National Board of Social Welfare, p. 3).

xv) Group Size - Maximum of 12 for 1-2 year olds; 20 for 3-6 year olds (National Board of Social Welfare, p. 3).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: About 60% of the spaces are full-time. Estimates put the number of available spaces at about half the required number (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** Licensed family child care centres. [Centre-based outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: All children; priority given to children of single parents (Cooke, 1983, p. 259).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "School-Aged Child Care Programs For Younger Children."

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** Peruskoulu
[Primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children of compulsory school age. usually seven years and older (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - Primary education should teach pupils to learn for themselves, remove obstacles to learning and cultivate the whole personality (Holmes, 1983, p. 292).

ii) Operator - Local school boards operate under the eleven provincial governments (Holmes, 1983, p. 285).

iii) Location - Various but efforts are made to ensure that rural areas are equally well served (Holmes, 1983, p. 290-291).

iv) Time of Operation - Primary schools are operated from five to seven hours per day from mid-August to the end of May in two terms (Kurian, 1988, p. 390).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - There is no cost to parents including books, meals, medical and dental treatment and transportation (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

viii) **Regulation** - Basic regulations concerning education are incorporated into the Finnish Constitution and parliamentary legislation. The Educational System Act of 1978 is part of social legislation with the goals of equal access, improvement of standards of living and enhancement of the quality of live (Kurian, 1988, p. 390).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - 1:15

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - The education of primary school teachers lasts for five years after senior secondary school. Three professional development days are included in collective bargaining agreements (Kurian, 1988, p. 404).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) Group Size - Maximum class size is 32 but can be larger with special permission (Kurian, 1988, p. 392).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Children study mother tongue, second national or foreign language, religion according to their own faith, environmental studies, math, natural history, social studies, music, art and phys. ed. (Kurian, 1988, p. 272).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

FRANCE

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FRANCE

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Preschool education is free and nearly universal. In 1983-84 almost all four and five year olds were enrolled in programs as were 91% of three year olds. Parents have a range of options from which to choose; Assistante Maternelle about which little is known, Ecole Maternelles and their small urban centre counterparts Classes Enfantine, Jardin d'Enfants and Haltes-garderies.

Ecoles Maternelle/Classes Enfantine enroll children from two years of age but more often from three. Children are placed in one of three groups based on developmental level and age. Similarly, children from working class and middle class backgrounds are found in these settings and this is considered to be one of its strengths. They offer both child care and educational components.

Jardins d'Enfants are provided by private operators; a few are run by ministries, municipalities, low rent housing projects, railroads and the Red Cross. They serve children aged two to five or six.

Haltes-garderies provide part-time care for children up to and including six years of age. Little information is available on this type of care.

Primary school in France begins at six years of age. There are roughly equal numbers of boys, girls and co-educational schools. The curriculum tends to be formal and non-innovative and the instructional style is teacher-centred.

Garderies are the primary type of care available to older children outside of school hours. They are publicly funded and are located on school premises during the school year and elsewhere when school is out for extended periods.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. **CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY:** According to Kamerman (1988), the child care policy of France is based on the philosophy that parents should have the choice in deciding whether one or both parents will work. In theory, to support parental choice in child care, a government must ensure that parents who need quality child care have access to it, and parents who wish to have one parent remain at home to care for the child have sufficient income support (Cooke, 1986, p. 253).

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** According to Moss (1988), France has a long history of providing child care. Even in the 14th century, attempts were being made to regulate 'child nurses', caretakers who looked after children, either in the child's home or in their own home.

In the 19th century, as a result of industrialization, increasing numbers of women were employed in factories. While some children were left in private nurseries, most were taken to the factory. When they were old enough, these children did some work. In 1841, new laws forbidding child labour created more of a need and thus a demand for child care. As a result children's shelters were established to provide care and education for children aged 2 to 7. These shelters gained a reputation as teaching establishments and eventually the Ministry of Education became responsible for them. They became preprimary schools. Originally, these preprimary schools were open from 7:00 a.m. to 7:00

p.m. However, with the 8 hour work day, the hours of the program were reduced. This created a need for outside school hours care. The local authorities were given responsible for meeting this need (Moss, 1988, p. 116).

Nurseries today developed from the charitable nurseries established in the mid 1800's. The establishment of these early nurseries was motivated by the following: the need for a large workforce; a concern to abolish poverty by drawing women into employment, and an attempt to reduce infant death and abandonment. By the 1860's these nurseries became subsidized by the State, and came to be under the control of Departmental Prefects. They were required to meet certain standards in hygiene, medical supervision and staffing. Nurseries developed a health and welfare orientation (Moss, 1988, p. 116).

In the late 1860s, workplace nurseries began to be established by owners and managers and at the beginning of the 20th century, the first municipal nurseries were opened (Moss, 1988, p. 116).

In 1959, the first 'organized other family care' child care program was established (Moss, 1988, p. 116).

In 1982, tax relief on child care costs was introduced and in 1977, a leave of two years was introduced to allow women workers to stay home and care for their young children. In 1984, the child care leave was extended to men. At the same time, in order to encourage larger families, an allowance was introduced for parents taking leave who have three or more children (Moss, 1988, p. 117).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - Once a worker has provided a medical certificate to her employer, she may take 6 weeks of maternity leave before the expected date of birth and 10 weeks after the birth. If the mother has twins or medical reasons, the leave may be extended by two weeks. The leave period for a mother who is having a third or subsequent child is 8 weeks before the birth and 18 weeks afterwards (Townson, 1985, p. 25).

The mother is eligible to claim benefits from the social security fund equal to 90% of her normal earnings up to a maximum limit. Legislation does not provide job protection (Townson, 1985, p. 25).

In order to qualify for paid maternity leave, a mother must have been employed for 1200 hours during the previous year. In addition, she must have contributed to the social insurance scheme for at least ten months before the beginning of her leave (Townson, 1985, p. 25).

Maternity benefits are financed by employer and employee contributions. The employer contributes 10.25% of wages up to a specified amount, and 2% after that. Employees contribute 2.5%, and then 1% after that (Townson, 1985, p. 26).

In France, adopting mothers like natural mothers are eligible to take between 10 and 20 weeks of paid leave, depending on the number of children being adopted and the number of children already in the family (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

In France, birth/adoption leave is not available for fathers. Fathers are entitled to take three days of paid leave at the time of birth (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Extended Child Care Leave - For workers with at least one year's service, unpaid leave is available to stay home to take care of a child under the age of three. However, this leave is available only to people who work in firms that employ more than 100 workers. There are no paid benefits for this time period (Cooke, 1986, p. 245).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - No mention of leave to care for sick children.

In France, mothers with young children are allowed to take two extra days of annual leave (Cooke, 1986, p. 247).

Child Care Legislation -

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** The Ministry of Education (local, regional, and national education departments) is responsible for preschool care for three-to-six-year-olds. The Ministry of Public Health and Social Security is responsible for most of the care of young children (Cooke, 1986, p. 261 and Moss, 1988, p.89).

E. A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:

For children under three years of age, the licensed care options are creches collectives [nursery], creches familiales [organized other family care], and licensed child minders [other family caregiver]. The creches collectives and creches familiales are free or have very low fees for low-income families. The unlicensed care options are unlicensed child minders and private nourices. Neither of these child care options are subsidized.

The types of child care that are available for children three years of age and older are ecoles maternelles [pre-primary schooling], garderies [outside school hours care] or jardin d'enfants, and halt-garderies. Halt-garderies offer part-time care. The garderies are generally school-based outside school hours care (Moss, 1988, p. 109).

While there are "pouponieres", child care for children under three who have special needs, the Task Force Survey indicates that the government encourages creches and ecoles maternelles to integrate handicapped children (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

There appears to be no employer-operated ecoles maternelles (Moss, 1988, p. 101).

F. CHILD CARE COVERAGE: The coverage for children under three is reasonable and the coverage for children three to six is almost universal (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

In 1983-84, almost 100% of 4 and 5 year olds attended preschool programs as did 91% of 3 year olds (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 6 years old (Moss, 1988, p.89).

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN: The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in France is six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than seven years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children six years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME: Assistante Maternelle**

1) Registered
2) Independent
[Other Family Caregiver]

PROGRAM USER: No Mention.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - No mention.

iii) Location - No mention.

iv) Time of Operation - No mention.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No mention.

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Child:Staff - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Ecoles Maternelles**
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children three years old to six. Children that are two years old and toilet trained are allowed to attend (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - No mention.

iii) **Location** - Ecoles Maternelles programs are physically separate from the primary schools (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

iv) **Time of Operation** - The hours are the same as for primary schooling (Moss, 1988, p. 104).

Usually open for a six hour day but can stay open for ten or twelve hours depending on locale, four-and-a-half days per week (closed Wednesday and half-day Saturday) (Cooke, 1986, p. 260; Moss, 1988, p. 93, p. 413).

Some ecoles maternelles have lunch programs and before-and after-school programs (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

Where the program is available morning and afternoon, the parents can decide how long to send their children, normally they attend all day except for children under three (Moss, 1988, p. 93).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - In 1976, building costs for ecoles maternelles were about 6490FF ($1019 Cdn) per child space. This did not include the cost of land which is provided by the municipality. At this time annual operating costs including building maintenance averaged about 52 853FF ($8306 Cdn) per class of 37 children (Cooke, 1986, p. 261).

vi) **Funding** - In 1976, the central government paid 55 per cent of staff salaries, the municipalities paid 45 per cent of staff salaries and the State contributed forty-eight per cent of capital costs (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Free to parents in France when it is funded by the local authority (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

viii) **Regulation** - Set by Ministry of National Education.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - No mention.

xii) **Staff** - In larger cities, the non-teaching staff may include social workers and attendants (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) **Group Composition** - Generally, the ecoles maternelle are structured around developmental stages and age groupings, for example, petite (under 4), moyen (4's), grand (5's). Occasionally, these age groups are mixed (Moss, 1988, p. 97). Although most children are from working class backgrounds, many middle class children are beginning to attend (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

xv) **Group Size** - 30 to 35 children in each class (Moss, 1988, p. 92).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Most schools provide a hot meal at lunch although in some cases there is not enough space for all children to stay (Moss, 1988, p. 92).

> In order of importance, the program includes games, movement exercises set to music, drawing, elementary ethics, general knowledge, language and arithmetic (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In 1977, ninety-five per cent of three-to-six-year-olds and thirty-two per cent of two year olds attended public nursery schools (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

In 1983-84, almost 100% of 4 and 5 year olds attended ecoles maternelles programs as did 91% of 3 year olds (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

There are 2.5 million spaces (Moss, 1988, p. 89).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Mixed social grouping helps foster mutual respect and understanding (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** Classes Enfantines
Infant classes
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Generally do not take children below the age of four. Replaces ecoles maternelles in towns of fewer than 2,000 inhabitants (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "Ecoles Maternelles."

4. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Jardin d'Enfants**
[Kindergarten]

PROGRAM USER:

Jardins d'enfant - Children 2-4 to 5 or 6 years old (Moss, 1988, p. 20). Access is determined by the employment of the father (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Usually by a private enterprise or administrative body (Cooke, 1986, p. 260). Also low rent housing projects, railroads or the Red Cross may be operators (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

iii) Location - No mention.

iv) Time of Operation - No mention.

v) Program Delivery Costs - No mention.

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No mention.

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - Diploma from a school approved by the Ministry of Health and be at least 19 years of age (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE:

Jardins d'enfants - 13,200 places. This type of service was established initially to compensate for shortages of pre-primary schooling. However, it is no longer being developed (Moss, 1988, p. 89).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

5. **PROGRAM NAME: Haltes-garderies**
[Part-time child care]

PROGRAM USER: (1) children aged three months to six years whose mothers are not in the labour force or working part-time (Moss, 1988, p. 63), (2) children whose parent(s) are employed on Wednesdays, when ecoles maternelles are closed (Cooke, 1986, p. 260)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - No mention.

iii) Location - No mention.

iv) Time of Operation - Open 8 to 9 hours a day but intended to be for part-time care (Moss, 1988, p. 63). Parents not in the workforce can use them as needed. Working parents use them on Wednesday when ecoles maternelle are closed.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No mention.

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - Maximum of 20 children (Cooke, p. 260).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

B) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME: Primary School**
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 6-10 years (Moss, 1988, p. 104).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - With one of the oldest educational systems in the western world, the French have not modernized it beyond teaching by rigid rules and methods. Although equal access is legislated, it is not a reality for many (eg. rural areas) (Kurian, 1988, p. 410).

ii) Operator - No mention.

iii) Location - Schools.

iv) Time of Operation - School hours generally are 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. with a 2 hour lunch from 11:30 a.m. to 1:30 p.m. Schools are closed all day Wednesday but open from 8:30 a.m. to 11:30 a.m. on Saturday. From 1988, there will be 17 weeks of holidays per year, 10 weeks in the summer, 2 weeks each at Christmas and Easter, and 3 half-term breaks of 1 week each (Moss, 1988, p. 104).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No mention.

viii) Regulation - Curriculum is set by the national government either through laws passed by the National Assembly or the Ministry of National Education (Kurian, 1988, p. 414).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - 1:19.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - There are almost equal numbers of boys' schools, girls' schools and co-educational schools (Kurian, 1988, p. 413)

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - Many schools are one and two rooms only. In rural areas they may be housed in the same building as the commune offices (Kurian, 1988, p. 413).

xvii) __Activities__ - Schools provide supervision and hot lunches (Moss, 1988, p. 104). Teaching is largely unimaginative and non-innovative. Language instruction is stressed (Kurian, 1988, p. 414).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Garderies**
[Outside school hours
care]

PROGRAM USER: School-aged children. School-based before-and after-school care is available to all children attending schools where such programs are available. Centre-based programs on the other hand give priority to the children of employed parents, single parents and low income parents (Moss, 1988, pp. 20 and 108).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:
Garderies - This is the main type of outside school hours care available. There are two basic types of before and after school child care, school-based and centre-based (Moss, 1988, pp. 90 and 108).

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Usually by a private enterprise or administrative body (Cooke, 1986, p. 260).

iii) **Location**
During school terms, this type of care is based in individual schools. However, during school holidays the location can vary. Children from several different schools may be taken to one school or children from several schools may be taken

to a centre (Moss, 1988, p. 90).

Programs for before and after school child care are located at schools or centres (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

iv) Time of Operation Before and after school (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Both school and centre based before and after school child care programs are publicly funded (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No mention.

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Most schools provide a hot meal at lunch although in some cases there is not enough space for children to stay (Moss, 1988, p. 92).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: School-based outside school hours care is generally available to all children attending schools in which the following services operate: pre-primary schooling, play centres, and early primary schooling (Moss, 1988, p. 89).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC (GDR)

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  - 1. Allgemeinbildende Polytechnische Oberschule [Primary schooling]

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC (GDR)

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

School-aged child care is very directed, purposeful in the German Democratic Republic. It is nationally controlled through several agencies. Kindergartens are seen as three year programs and are available universally. They involve medical and dental check-ups and are essentially free to parents.

The Allgemeinbildende Polytechnische Oberschule literally translates to high school which is a reflection of the relatively high level of education taught even at the primary school level. Language and math are stressed.

In addition, almost all children belong to sports or interest clubs of one kind or another. Many are sponsored by national Ministries or lower levels of government. These activities constitute an extremely extensive form of child care as well.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: No mention.

B. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: No mention.

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - The GDR provides 26 weeks of maternity leave with 100% income replacement (Cooke, 1986, p. 240). The social insurance policy plan is financed through employer and employee contributions (Cooke, 1986, p. 243). The self-employed are eligible for parental insurance benefits if they contribute both the employee and the employer share.

Information about the way in which leave is divided between pre- and the post-natal periods was not available (Cooke, 1986, p. 241).

Extended Child Care Leave - An extended leave of 26 weeks is available for mothers of two children and an extended leave of 52 weeks is available for mothers of three or more children. The extended leave benefit is a flat-rate benefit equivalent to the statutory sick benefit (Cooke, 1986, p. 245).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - Only mothers may take leave to care for sick children (Cooke, 1986, p. 247). Mothers with two or more children under 16 years old are entitled to extra leave. The annual number of extra days depends on how many children a woman has and whether or not she is a shift worker. For example, a shift worker with three children under the age of 16 is entitled to an extra five days of annual leave. In addition, mothers of two or more children are provided with shorter working hours (Cooke, 1986, p. 247).

Child Care Legislation

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** Ministry of Health is responsible for Krippen and Ministry of Education for Kindergarten (Cooke, 1986, p. 261).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** For under three year olds, there are publicly provided Krippen or Creche for all who need it. For children 3-6 years of age, there is kindergarten (Cooke, 1986, p. 261).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** In 1983, 786,000 kindergarten places were available. There is a place in an after-school center for every school-aged child from grade 1 to 4 (Cooke, 1986, p. 261).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A) AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: Six years of age.

B) DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:

The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in German Democratic Republic is the term after the child turns six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children will be defined as programs that children less than six years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children seven years or older are eligible to attend.

C) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: Kindergarten
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: children aged 3-6 attend

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy - Emphasis is placed on developing a child's ability to think for themselves, express themselves, take responsibility and participate socially (Kurian, 1988, p. 431).

ii) Operator - Community, factory, collective and churches (Kurian, 1988, p. 430).

iii) Location - No mention.

iv) Time of Operation 6:00 a.m. to 7:00 p.m. maximum (Cooke, 1986, p. 262).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding fully subsidized by the private and the public sector. No information about how costs are shared between public and private sectors (Cooke, 1986, p. 262).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) Free except for a small percentage of the cost of meals (Cooke, 1986, p. 262).

viii) Regulation Little information on standards and enforcement. However, specific norms are set regarding hours of operation, health supervision and check-ups, regime, temperature, nutrition, health education, physical space, outdoor space, safety, time of out-of-doors, ventilation, lighting, and staff training and qualifications (Cooke, 1986, p. 262).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination The joint construction of krippen and kindergartens is now favoured when housing projects are built (Cooke, 1986, p. 261).

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - In addition to the regular three year program, which includes art, music and phys. ed., regular medical and dental check ups are made (Kurian, 1988, p. 430).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In 1983, 786,000 kindergarten places were available. Over 90% of three to five year olds are enrolled. In addition, a place in an after-school center is available for every school-aged child from grade 1 to 4 (Cooke, 1986, p. 261; Kurian, 1988, p. 430).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Regular medical and dental check ups (Kurian, 1988, p. 430).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: **Allgemeinbildende**
Polytechnische Oberschule
[Primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 6-15 (Kurian, 1988, p. 429).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy - To give all children a good general education that can serve as a basis for developing their personalities, for creative work, for continued training and for active participation in socialist society (Kurian, 1988, p. 431).

ii) Operator - No mention.

iii) Location - Schools.

iv) Time of Operation September to June, six days a week with 96 vacation days (Kurian, 1988 p. 430).

v) Program Delivery Cost - In 1982, eleven billion Marks or 6% of the total budget was spent on education (Kurian, 1988, p. 440).

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - None to parents.

viii) **Regulation** - Centrally directed by several agencies, most importantly, the Ministry of Public Education and the Ministry of Health. (Kurian, 1988, p. 440)

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - 1:20 (Kurian, 1988, p. 429).

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - Four or five years of university level training depending on what grades will be taught (Kurian, 1988, p. 442).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - No mention.

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Language development stressed followed by math (Kurian, 1988, p. 431).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: - All children except the ineducable attend (Kurian, 1988, p. 429).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Urban-rural differences are minimized as are gender-role differences (Kurian, 1988, p. 429).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

ITALY

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I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Almost all things associated with the caring for and educating of children falls under the ultimate responsibility of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Young school-aged children may attend scuola materna at no cost to their parents. Private Catholic schools follow traditional religion methods while state schools adopt the Montessori method (Kurian, 1988, p. 652).

Primary school begins at six years of age and is free until they reach eleven. Programs are funded by government and communal administration. The five year period is divided into a 2-year and a 3-year cycle. The first is a general curriculum with subjects being introduced in the second segment (Holmes, 1983, p. 434).

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: No mention.

B. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:

Nurseries - Nurseries were first established in Italy in the early 19th century. However, the state only became involved in 1925 when the Central Government established an organization called the Opera Nazionale Maternita e Infanzia. This organization provided nursery care in a social welfare context.

In the 1950's and 1960's, rapid industrialization increased the need for child care, and thus, the demand for nurseries and pre-primary education. In 1971, two important laws were established.

Law 1204 provided the following: protection of women during pregnancy; paid leave; extended leave; and time off to care for sick children. Law 1044 recognized the right of all mothers to use nurseries (working mothers having priority). In addition, Law 1044 established that the State should assume an active role in establishing these child care services. The regional governments were to plan services and the local authorities were to provide the services and manage them in collaberation with interest groups.

A goal of 3,800 nurseries by 1976 was set and funds allocated by the Central government to support this development. The OMNI was abolished.

While the target set in 1971 was not achieved, by the target date of 1976, 964 nurseries were established, and by 1983, 1800 established.

While nurseries were historically concerned with caring for children with major social needs and with meeting the child care needs caused by women's employment, in the last 10-15 years, the new emphasis has been on providing childcare with an educational approach (Moss, 1988, p. 118).

Pre-primary education - Pre-primary education was originally established by private organizations including the church. The inactivity of the Central Government following the War led some some local authorities to try to fill the gap by establishing their own pre-primary schooling.

In 1968, Law 444 established State pre-primary education. State funded pre-primary education was a contentious issue. While state involvement was supported by left-wing parties, Trades Unions and the women's movement, it was strongly opposed by the Roman Catholic Church.

Following the establishment of Law 444, there was a rapid increase in state pre-primary schooling, so that by 1974, state pre-primary schooling covered 21% of children aged 3-5, and by 1985/86, 49%. The establishment of this law also made it easier for local authorities to provide pre-primary schools (Moss, 1988, p. 118).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - Italy provides 20 weeks of maternity leave insured at maximum benefits -- 6 weeks pre-natal and 12 weeks post-natal. If the 6 weeks pre-natal are not taken at a specific time, they are forfeited. The period of time a woman must work before qualifying for maternity leave was not mentioned. The income replacement during maternity leave is 80% with a maximum on the amount of earnings insured (Cooke, 1986, p. 242).

In Italy, 20 weeks of maternity leave are available to adopting mothers on the same terms as to natural mothers. However, the adoption leave is reserved for the mother although fathers are eligible to take extended child care leave to care for the adopted child (Cooke, 1988, pp. 242 and 244).

The birth/adoption leave is financed through the social insurance program. Employees and employers contribute to this program (Cooke, 1986, p. 242). Coverage of the self-employed was not mentioned.

Extended Child Care Leave - The duration of the extended leave is 26 weeks at 30% of average wages provided by Social Security Funds.

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - If the child is sick and is under three years of age, a mother may take paid leave of absence. Furthermore, the father may claim these rights to extra leave and time off if he has sole custody of the child or if he substitutes for the mother in caring for the child (Townon, 1985, p. 27).

Child Care Legislation - No mention.

RESPONSIBLE BODY: The Ministry of Public Instruction is responsible for state kindergartens (preprimary schools) and primary schooling. The municipalities are responsible for day nurseries and some kindergartens (preprimary schools) (Cooke, 1986, p. 262).

CHILD CARE OVERVIEW: For children 0-3 years old, there are Day Nurseries operated municipally, by religious orders, privately at the workplace, or by other agencies (Cooke, 1986, p. 262). Only 4% of children under three years old attend day nurseries and of these children, 93% attend the municipally operated ones.

In Italy, virtually all children from 3 upwards attend one type of service only - preprimary schooling. Within this one type of service, parents can choose amongst different operators. Public preprimary schooling is operated by the state and the municipality. Private preprimary schooling is operated by religious orders, the workplace, and private owners. School-based care is the main type of outside school hours care available (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

For children 3-6 years old, there are kindergartens (preprimary schools), publicly and privately run. Sixty-six per cent of all kindergartens [preprimary schools] are publicly run, 44% by the state, 17% by municipalities, and 4% by other non-profit operators. The other thirty-four per cent of the kindergartens [preprimary schools] are privately run. Twenty-three percent of these are operated by religious orders. Seventy-five per cent of children aged three to six attend kindergarten [preprimary schools] (Cooke, 1988, p. 262).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 6 years old (Moss, 1988, p. 89).

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN

The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Italy is six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than six years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children six years or older are eligible to attend.

C) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Scuola Materna** [Preprimary schooling] (Moss, 1988, pp. 20-21)

PROGRAM USER: Children aged three to five years old (Moss, 1988, p. 89). When the number of spaces are limited, priority is given to the children of young single parents (Cooke, 1986, p. 26).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operators - The state, municipalities, religious orders, workplaces and private owners. There are no statistics available on the number of workplace kindergartens (Cooke, 1986, p. 262).

The Central Government provides preprimary schooling to about 50% of all children.
The local authorities provide preprimary schooling to about 16% of all children.
Private organizations which receive public funding provide preprimary schooling to about 39% of all children, 23% to religious orders and 16% to lay people (Moss, 1988, p. 94).

iii) Location - Occurs in schools separate from the primary schools (Moss, 1988, p. 97).

iv) Time of Operation

State nursery schools - A law passed in 1978 requires state schools to be open at least 8 hours a day (e.g. 8:00 a.m. - 4:00 p.m., or 9:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m. (Moss, 1988, p. 95).

Non-state nursery schools are usually open less than 7 hours a day; 45% of children at non-state schools attend a school that is open less than 7 hours a day while 19% attending state schools attend a school that is open less than 7 hours a day (Moss, 1988, p. 95).

Local authority-run nursery schools do not have to be open 8 hours a day, but may provide 'school-based outside school hours care' for parents who need it (Moss, 1988, p. 94).

Pre-primary school attendance - Most children (66%) go to schools that are open more than 7 hours a day; 50% of children attend school for 7 hours per day. The remainder go to schools for 4-7 hours a day (Moss, 1988, p. 94).

Regional differences - Children in the north are more likely to go to a school that is open more than 7 hours a day. Generally non-State schools have shorter hours. However, they often have more flexible hours and many private schools in the north stay open as long as 12 hours a day (Moss, 1988, p. 95).

School holidays - Primary schools have holidays that are several weeks longer than the holidays provided by the local authorities. State-run schools have the same holidays as primary schools (Moss, 1988, p. 95).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - State subsidies are paid to some private and municipal kindergartens. No information is available about how much is paid to whom (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - State and municipal kindergartens are free. There is a small charge for meals unless the family income is very low. The fees for privately-operated kindergartens vary with some fees being very high. Fees are not tax-deductible (Cooke, 1986, p. 262 and Moss, 1988, p. 96).

viii) **Regulation** - The Ministry of Education sets standards for state kindergartens and the syllabus for all other kindergartens.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:child - In state kindergartens, the ratio is 30:1. When there is a handicapped child in the group, the ratio is 20:1 (Cooke, 1986, p. 262). Two workers per group in some parts of Italy (Moss, 1988, p. 98).

xii) Staff - Recruited by competition within each province. There is no examination (Kurian, 1988, p. 664).

xiii) Staff Training - Training at Teachers College required (Holmes, 1983, p. 439).

xiv) Group Composition - 15 to 30 per class (Kurian, 1988, p. 652).

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Most schools provide supervision and a hot meal (Moss, 1988, p. 92).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In 1985/86, there was pre-primary school coverage for 88% of children between 3 and 5 (Moss, 1988, p. 94).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Outside school hours care**
[Outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: No mention.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Most of Italy's outside school hours care is school-based, and provided by the local authorities (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

iii) **Location** - During the school term, some schools offer outside school hours care. Outside school hours care offered during the summer holidays is generally located at summer school centres. These centres are located in schools that have more open space for games and outdoor activities (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Outside school hours care is usually available for several hours after school in the afternoon. In addition, the local authorities also fund, and sometimes run, outside school hours care during the summer holidays (Moss, 1988, p. 108).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) Funding - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Generally free to parents where it is funded by the local authority (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:Child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. PROGRAM NAME: Scuola elementare
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 6 years and older (Moss, 1988, p. 89).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - No mention.

iii) **Location** - Schools.

iv) **Time of Operation** - School hours are generally from 8:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon, or 8:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. In the north, there are some primary schools that are open 8 hours a day but these schools are available only to about 12-15% of children (Moss, 1988, p. 104).

There are 3 1/2 months of holidays. Most of these holidays are taken during the period from mid-June to mid-September. However, there is also 1 1/2 weeks at Christmas and a week at Easter (Moss, 1988, p. 104).

Pre-primary schooling is generally available for much longer hours than primary schooling (Moss, 1988, p. 104).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - 88% from central government (Kurian, 1988, p. 663).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Generally free to parents. Parents generally must pay for children's meals however (Moss, 1988, p. 96).

viii) **Regulation** - Set by the Ministry of Public Instruction (Kurian, 1988, p. 662).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:Child** - 1:16 (Kurian, 1988, p. 648).

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - Four years including practice teaching (Kurian, 1988, p. 664).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Outside school hours care**
   [Outside School Hours Care]

PROGRAM USER: No mention.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: as described in "PROGRAMS FOR SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

NORWAY

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   1. Grunskole
      [Primary schooling]
   2. Familie barnehager
      [Organized other family care]

NORWAY

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Parents have a range of childcare options. They may elect to send their children to public or private day care centres (barnehager). These providers serve a wide range of children varying mostly by location. Barnehagers are generally for children under three years of age but some continue as they grow older. Forskole klassers are available for six year olds. They are school-based and can be thought of as pre-elementary education.

School in Norway begins at the age of seven. It emphasizes individual learning and a common-core approach to the curriculum. Curriculum is set for all by the 1974 Act Concerning the Basic Schools and responsibility falls to local school boards.

There was no mention of either family child care or care for older children other than primary school.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: No mention.

B. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: According to Leira (1987), privately operated day care has been very important in the development of day care since World War II. Although the state and the municipalities play a larger role in the provision of day care, private approved day care, which is partly integrated into the public sector, is thought to supplement the public day care services. Currently being debated is the question of whether the private sector should be participating more actively in the provision of day care in order to increase the number of spaces (Leira, 1987, p. 75).

At present, the Ministry is developing guidelines for family day care. They have proposed a reduction of the number of children per preschool teacher (Leira, 1987, p. 78).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - Pregnant employees are entitled to a leave of absence of 12 weeks during pregnancy. After the birth of a child, the mother is required to take six weeks leave unless a medical certificate validates the belief that it is better for her to go back to work (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

Norway provides benefits for 108 days at 100% of the usual earnings. However, 36 of these days must be taken after the birth of the child; there is a minimum and maximum limit to these benefits; a worker must be insured (e.g. paying into the fund) in order to claim the benefits; and an employee must have been working for a total of six of the ten months before delivery in order to receive them (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

The maternity/paternity benefits are paid from the National Insurance Fund. To mothers who are not eligible for paid maternity leave there is a cash benefit on delivery and other cash benefits for single parents in certain circumstances and for children of unemployed parents (Townson, 1985, p. 19)

Two weeks' leave of absence on the birth of a child are given to a father provided that he lives with the mother and takes the opportunity to help in the family and in the home. If the mother decides to resume work before she has received a maternity allowance for 108 days, and if the father is at home and takes care of the child, he is entitled to receive the remainder of the maternity allowance. However, a father, like a mother, must have been working for a total of six of the ten months before the child's delivery, and a father must have been working for no less than 14 days immediately before he takes the leave. Furthermore, a father cannot receive the maternity allowance for more than 72 days (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

Extended Child Care Leave - During the first year of a child's life, the parents are entitled to take a further leave of absence. However the total amount of leave taken by mother and father must not exceed one year (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - A leave of up to ten days per calendar year at 100% of salary is available to either parent to care for a child under ten years old who is sick. This leave may also be claimed if the person who usually takes care of the child is ill (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

In the case of single parents, or a parent in a two-parent family where one parent is disabled ot institutionalized, a parent can claim as much as 20 days each calendar year to care for sick children (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

In addition, as long as it does not cause a particular inconvenience for the employer, workers who have family responsibilities may be entitled to working shorter hours and refusing overtime (Townson, 1985, p. 19).

Child Care Legislation

The 1975 Act on Day Care (Kindergarten) (Esbensen, 1983, p. 12).

D. RESPONSIBLE BODY:

National - Day care is administered by the Ministry of Consumer Affairs and Government Administration, the Division of Family Affairs and Equal Status Questions. The Ministry issues the regulations that supplement the Act, and the directives discussing issues and guidelines set by the Ministry. The Ministry has the final authority in any day care service questions (Leira, 1987, p. 57).

The Ministry of Church and Education is the central government body responsible for the country's schools (Holmes, 1983, p. 555).

Regional - The county governor has the authority to approve day care facilities. Advising the local authorities on day care questions is a member of the county governor's staff. Provision of information, arrangement of courses, and supervision of local staff may also be done by the councillor at the county governor's office (Leira, 1987, p. 57).

More recently, the administration of schools has been devolved to the regional and municipal authorities (Holmes, 1983, p. 555).

Municipal - A special local committee appointed by the municipal council is responsible for providing and supervising day care at the municipal level (Leira, 1987, p. 57). The local health authorities are responsible for regulating health and hygienic standards of the day care institutions.

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** There are still relatively few preschool institutions in Norway. It is provided by barnehager, familie barnehager or forskole klasser (Kurian, 1988, p. 955).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** In 1982, 12% of all children under seven years of age were in preschool programs (Kurian, 1988, p. 955).

III. SCHOOL AGE CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 7 years old (Leira, 1987, p. 62).

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN: The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Norway is seven years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than seven years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children seven years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Barnehager** (Holmes, 1983, p. 546);
Early Childhood Education (Esbensen, 1983, p. 13)
Day care centres
(1) Public
(2) Private, officially approved (Leira, 1987, p. 68);
[Kindergarten]

Public - Have several forms: full-time, part-time, stationary, and ambulatory. Decentralization of planning, establishing and running day care in Norway has resulted in a broad range of program characteristics (Leira, 1987, p. 68).

PROGRAM USER:

Public - Since the planning, establishment, and operation of day care is so decentralized, the age range of children attending the public day care centres is highly variable from one municipality to the next. The ages of children attending ranges anywhere from 0-7 years to 3-7. However, 3-6 year olds are better supplied with day care than children aged 0-2 (Leira, 1987, p. 68).

According to the Act, children with handicaps are given priority in access to public day care. In addition, priority may be given to children from single-parent familes and from two-earner families (Leira, 1987, p. 72).

There are large regional differences in access to day care. Coverage ranges from 0 to 60 or 70% (Leira, 1987, p. 72).

Private, approved - The age range of the user varies from institution to institution. Across day care centres, the range is as wide as 0-6 years old. Like public care, attendance varies from full-time to part-time (Leira, 1987, p. 74).

The availability of private, approved day care depends on the particular agreement with the municipality. Some of these day cares reserve the right to hold places for particular groups of people. For instance, parent cooperative day cares may reserve the right to hold places for their own children and employer operated day cares may reserve the right to hold places for the children of their employees. Furthermore, some day cares may be forced to exclude certain users because they receive limited or no municipal subsidies (Leira, 1987, p. 75).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy

Public and private, approved - According to Leira, (1987), "public [and private, approved] day care offers pre-school education in the broadest sense, and opportunities for play, and social interaction between children and between children and adults. Day care activities are aimed at stimulating each child to develop according to her/his abilities. In day care educational and caring aspects are both very important" (Leira, 1987, pp. 71, 75; Holmes, 1983, p. 546).

ii) Operator

Public - Operated by local authorities (Leira, 1987, p. 63). Each child care institution has a board of directors representing the municipality, the parents, and the employees. The director of the institution is in charge of the day-to-day management. Each Municipal council appoints a special committee to plan and supervise local day care facilities (Leira, 1987, p. 68).

Private, approved - Operated by private firms, groups, or associations and approved by public authorities (Leira, 1987, p. 63).

Private approved kindergartens must also have a committee composed of parents, staff, and local authority representatives (Holmes, 1983, p. 546).

Operated by employers, parents, religious communities and others (Leira, 1987, p. 74).

iii) Location

Public or private, approved - Centre-based (Leira, 1987, p. 63).

Stationary public day care are offered in purpose-built institutions, in elementary schools, and in converted houses in the country with ample outdoor play spaces (Leira, 1987, p. 68; Esbensen, 1983, p. 14).

iv) Time of Operation

Public and private, approved - Most children in day care attend less than full-time. In 1984, 29% attended 6-15 hours per week, 28% attended 16-30 hours per week, and 43% attended 31 or more hours per week (Leira, 1987, p. 69).

Public - Some forms are open 2 days a week. In sparsely populated areas, several days or weeks per month mobile pre-school teachers are available (Leira, 1987, p. 69).

v) Program Delivery Cost - Altogether the average expediture per child in day care was NOK 15,000 per year (Leira, 1987, p. 73).

vi) Funding

Public - Operating costs are split between the state, the municipality and the parents (Leira, 1987, p. 68). In 1980, the state paid 29%, the local authorities paid 53% and the parents paid 18% of the total operating costs. In 1981, the Ministry recommended that the split be 37.5% by the state, 37.5% by the local authorities, and 25% by the parents. In 1987, the split was 30% state, 45-50% local authorities, and 20-25% parents (Leira, 1987, p. 59).

Local authorities or interest groups who would like to establish new day care centres can get loans with relatively low interest rates from the Norwegian National Housing Bank (Leira, 1987, p. 58).

Public and private, approved - Private operators usually receive substantial official funding (Holmes, 1983, p. 546).
In 1983, the state subsidies for public and private, approved day care were about NOK 550 million. The local authorities paid about NOK 800 million (Leira, 1987, p. 73).

Local authorities are reimbursed up to 30-35% of the administrative costs in proportion to the number of children attending the programs (Kurian, 1988, p. 955).

vii) Cost to Parent(s)

Public and private, approved - Because state subsidies are granted to all day care centres as long as the county governor approves them, and because municipal support is available from many local authorities, parental fees are often higher in privately owned centres than in local authority operated ones (Leira, 1987, p. 59).

The cost of day care to parents depends on the amount of time the child spends in day care. According to Leira, (1987) 90% of the children who attend 16 hours or less per week pay less than NOK 400 per month. 65% of the children who attend for more than 31 hours per week pay NOK 800 or more. The amounts that parents should pay are determined by the local authority and they set no fixed limits.

Public and private, approved - Tax deductions provide some relief from child care cost to dual-income families and single working parents. With no child care tax receipts, NOK. 3,500 can be deducted for one child under 14 and 4,500 for two children under 14. However, with child care tax receipts, NOK. 11,000 can be deducted for one child under 14 and NOK. 13,500 can be deducted for two or more children under 14. These amounts do not necessarily cover the cost to parents of full-time public day care (Leira, 1987, p. 59).

viii) Regulation

Public and private, approved - Barnehagers are governed by the law of 1975 that made local authorities responsible for preschool education although the overall direction lies with the Ministry of Consumer Affairs and Government Administration (Kurian, 1988, p. 955).

Public - All buildings must meet certain standards set by central government (Leira, 1987, p. 68).

Private, approved - Very often the municipality sets conditions for providing economic support. It is not unusual for municipalities to demand as a condition for maximum economic support the right to control allocation of places (Leira, 1987, p. 74).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication

Public and private, approved - The Act governing Day Care states that day care should be organized in close cooperation with the homes of the children. Formal cooperation is organized through the board of directors and the parents' council. Sitting on the board of directors are representatives from the parents, the employees and the owners. The board's authority is restricted to the internal organization and function of the institution. All parents whose children attend the day care sit on the parents' council, an advisory body for the board (Leira, 1987, p. 71).

Meetings between parents and staff are arranged at least twice a year. Parents are entitled to meet individually with the staff at any time (Leira, 1987, p. 71).

Private, approved - In some of the private approved day care services, especially parent cooperative centres, parents play a very active role. They participate by financing the activities, maintaining the centre, supplying equipment, and replacing personnel who are ill. In some centres, parents work as volunteers (Leira, 1987, p. 74).

xi) **Staff:Child**

Public and private, approved - 1 pre-school teacher per 14-18 children over 3 years old and per 7-9 children under 3 when children are attending more than 6 hours per day. More children may be admitted when hours are shorter. However, it is recommended that no less than 2 adults per 14-18 children aged 3-6, and 2 adults per 7-9 children under 3 years be present (Leira, 1987, p. 70).

The national average adult:child ratio is 1:4 in public day care and 1:6 in approved, private day care.

xii) Staff

Public and private, approved - Each day care centre is headed by a director. The director is responsible for the following: day-to-day management; overall planning; work organization; maintaining contact with other public services (e.g. social and educational authorities) and with parents; and with participating in the allocation of available places (Leira, 1987, p. 69).

The typical kindergarten consists of about 16 children aged 3-7 years old under the direction of a qualified preschool teacher and two or three adult assistants (Holmes, 1983, p. 546).

xiii) **Staff Training**

Public - The director is a qualified preschool teacher or has an equivalent education. Very often directors will have additional supplementary training. Teachers' training colleges offer preschool teachers' training. The course takes 3 years (Leira, 1987, p. 69).

In large day care institutions, the heads of various sections must also have a formal education as a preschool teacher or the equivalent (Leira, 1987, p. 69).

Adults teaching heritage languages need not have educational training. It is only required that they have bi-lingual proficiency in the languages they teach (Leira, 1987, p. 70).

xiv) **Group Composition**

Public and private, approved - Grouped either according to age or in groups containing a cross-section of ages (Leira, 1987, p. 63).

xv) **Group Size** - No mention.

xvi) **Space**

Public and private, approved - Day care legislation regulates the size and equipment of day care institutions. The norms vary with the age of the children and the hours of attendance:

Hours of attendance per day	Age of child	Total area per child
4 hours or less	all ages	4.5 - 5.5 sq.metres
More than 6 hours	>3 years	7-9 sq.metres
From 4-6 hours	>3 years	4.5 - 5.5 sq.metres

According to the regulations, the total outside area should be six times the inside area, and at least half of this area should be appropriate for play (Leira, 1987, p. 70).

xvii) Activities

Public and private, approved - The environment and activities are planned according to educational principles (Leira, 1987, p. 71).

Educational and caring aspects are both very important. Public day care offers opportunities for play, and social interaction between children and between children children and adults (Leira, 1987, p. 71).

Children with special needs receive special treatment, for example, specially trained teachers or counselling from a service affiliated with the educational authority.

In addition, there is also a close cooperation with local health and social services (Leira, 1987, p. 71).

Public - Offers immigrant children some training in their native language by an adult speaking their own language as long as there are 4 children who speak the language (Leira, 1987, p. 70).

Barneparker - Supervised outdoor playground

PROGRAM COVERAGE:

Public and private, approved - In 1984, of all children aged 0-6, 11.4% attended day care for 31 hours or more per week, 15% attended for less than 30 hours per week, and 73.6% had no access to public or private, approved day care (Leira, 1987, p. 69).

In 1984, 26% of dual-income families where both parents are working full time reported using public or private approved day care. 45% used private unregulated day care (Leira, 1987, p. 66).

In 1982, 90,000 children or 12% of children less than seven years old attended barnehagers (Kurian, 1987, p. 955).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: According to Leira, no comparative studies have been made in which two or more forms of child care are directly compared (Leira, 1987, p. 86).

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS:

Public - Public day care is generally thought to be of high quality and an experience that is very valuable for children (Leira, 1987, p. 72).

Private, approved - According to Leira (1987) privately operated day care has been very important in the development of day care since World War II. Although the state and the municipalities play a larger role in the provision of day care, private approved day care, which is partly integrated into the public sector, is believed by some an effective means of supplementing the public day care services.

Many believe that the advantage of some forms of private, approved day care is a closer parent-staff cooperation (Leira, 1987, p. 75).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES:

Public - The scarcity of high-quality day care is the biggest problem (Leira, 1987, p. 72).

Private, approved - Some people believe that if the system of private, approved day care for children from more well-to-do families were allowed to spread, the generally held idea that all children should have equal access to high-quality day care would be threatened (Leira, 1987, p. 75).

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Familie barnehage**
[Organized Other Family Care]

PROGRAM USER: Particularly intended for children aged 0-3 because the number of public day-care places for this age group is very limited (Leira, 1987, p. 76).

Because there is a shortage of public day care for children under 3 years old, parents who have gained access to any form of public day care for their young children generally have top priority. Most municipalities reserve family day care for under 3s, but a child who has started in family day care is allowed to continue attending until older (Leira, 1987, p. 77).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Organized by the local authority as part of the local public system of day care. Family day care is also provided by private interests who operate with public approval (Leira, 1987, p. 76).

iii) Location - The childminder's home (Leira, 1987, p. 76).

iv) Time of Operation - Generally provided on a full-time basis of up to 45 hours per week

(Leira, 1987, p. 76).

v) Program Delivery Cost -

vi) Funding - Family day care is funded by the state, the municipality and the parents in the same way as it is for day care centres. The state subsidies for family day care and centre care are the same (Leira, 1987, p. 78). See "Funding" under the program Day care centres for more information.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - The same parental payment guideline used for family day care as for any other forms of day care (Leira, 1987, p. 78).

viii) Regulation -

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - See "Child Care/Parent Communication" under the program Day Care Centres (Leira, 1987, p. 77).

xi) Staff:Child - No mention.

xii) Staff - Requires no formal training. It is assumed that all members of the family of the minder are supportive of her employment activity. A qualified pre-school teacher gives supervision (Leira, 1987, p. 76).

xiii) Staff Training - Some municipalities offer training courses (Leira, 1987, p. 76).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - Each group may not include more than 4 children of preschool age, including the children of the minder. The children are organized into groups of thirty, probably for the purpose of coordinating and supervising the childminders (Leira, 1987, p. 76).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - The day-care institution or the director's office serves as a base for children and adults in family day care. Sometimes, they may visit the base a fixed number of days per month. Occasionally, special trips will be arranged. The preschool teacher and the childminders cooperate to plan the activities of the family day care (Leira, 1987, p. 77).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: About 2.7% of all children in public and private, approved day care attend family day care. There are 800 homes which supply this form of care. Each provider takes care of about 3 children on average

(Leira, 1987, p. 76).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: According to Leira (1987), no comparative studies have been made in which two or more forms of child care are directly compared.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Family day care was introduced with the idea that it would be an easy way to increase day care provision at a reasonable cost, that is without building new institutions. The assumption was that this form of day care would take the place of informal unregulated family day care. However, this objective has not been realized because public family day care has not developed to such an extent (Leira, 1987, p. 77).

Argued by some to be preferable to institutional care for very young children or children who need smaller groups. Often preferred by parents because it is closer to home, and available full-time (Leira, 1987, p. 78).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: Generally believed that family day care is not as suitable for older children, who benefit from a broader range of activities, a greater emphasis on education, and a larger selection of children with whom to play (Leira, 1987, p. 77).

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Forskole Klasser**
Preschool
[Early primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 6 years old (Leira, 1987, p. 63).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Local educational authorities.

iii) Location - Only available in certain municipalities (Holmes, 1983, p. 546).

iv) Time of Operation - Half days (Leira, 1987, p. 64).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Reimbursed 30%-35% of administrative costs from the Ministry of Consumer Affairs and Government Administration (Kurian, 1988, p. 955).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - No mention.

viii) Regulation - No mention.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Child:Staff - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - Three years of specialized college level training (Kurian, 1988, p. 962).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

B) SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: **Grunnskole**
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 7 - 16 years (Holmes, 1983, p. 547).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - The Education Act of 1969 is designed, "to make pupils good members of the community...to help give pupils a Christian and moral upbring; to develop their mental and physical abilities; and to give them a good general knowledge so that they may become useful and self-reliant human beings both at home and in the community" (Holmes, 1983, p. 547).

ii) Operator - Local education boards within each municipality (Kurian, 1988, p. 956).

iii) Location - Schools.

iv) Time of Operation - 8:30 a.m. - 2:00 p.m. five days per week. Children attend school from August to June. There are two semesters separated by Christmas and the long summer break (Holmes, 1983, p. 546).

NORWAY continued

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - In 1981, the total educational budget was 9.92 billion krone or about 6% of the GNP (Kurian, 1988, p. 961).

The local authorities collectively raise about 45% of the cost of education (Kurian, 1988, p. 961).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Free including transportation in rural areas (Kurian, 1988, p. 954).

viii) **Regulation** - Grunnskole is regulated by the model plan produced by a committee appointed by the Ministry of Education in 1971-1972 (Holmes, 1983, p. 547).

The Ministry of Church and Education establishes minimum standards for hours of work, equipment, buildings, teaching aids, floor space, size of classes, et cetera. At the school level, it approves all text books, their curriculum, and syllabi (Holmes, 1983, p. 555).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) Staff:Child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - The requirement is three years at a college of education run by the Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs. In recent years, inservice training for teachers has increased in importance (Kurian, 1988, p. 962).

xiv) Group Composition - Maximum of 30 (Kurian, 1988, p. 955).

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Familie barnehage** [Organized other family care]

PROGRAM USER:

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: For a description of Familie barnehage, look under "A) School-Aged Child Care Programs For Younger Children".

SWEDEN

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SWEDEN

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

Although the primary responsibility for raising children is considered to be in the home, the child care system is relatively well developed. Child care falls under the jurisdiction of the Board of Social Welfare.

Almost all daghem are operated by local authorities. They provide care for children six years old or younger. Priority is based on at-risk factors and parents' employment status.

Deltidsgrupp [part-time kindergarten] offers part-time care to five and six year olds in a family home setting. It is organized by local authorities usually but in some areas, the Church or other voluntary organizations are involved.

Kommunal familjedaghem [organized other family care] provides spaces in family homes for 0-12 year olds. There are full- and part-time programs subsidized by the central government. Parent fees account for about 13% of the costs of care.

Older school-aged children can also attend leisure time centres. They essentially provide care to children before and after school during vacations. Parent fees account for 40%-50% of the costs. They are regulated by the National Board of Health and Welfare.

Swedish children begin school at seven years of age. There are no parent fees and the schools are run by local school boards. The Swedes have made a conscious effort to ensure free and universal access for all children.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY: According to Kamerman (1988), Sweden bases its child care policy on the following premises: 1) women must achieve economic independence in order to achieve equality, 2) women must participate in the labour force in order to achieve economic independence, and 3) generous paid parental leave and benefits, and extensive child care services are necessary to enable women to participate fully in the labour force.

Sweden regards child care as an integral part of family and community life. In fact, Sweden regarded the expansion of child care facilities as the most important family policy issue of the 1970's. Sweden designs its child care policy with the goal of providing children with a good, secure growth environment. At the same time, it strives to give both men and women equal opportunities to combine gainful employment with family life (Swedish Institute, nd).

According to Leira (1987), the general aim of the 1982 Social Services Act is to promote democratic values such as equality, security and responsibility. In addition, the act aims to do the following:

1) encourage cooperation between parents and the public day-care providers in order to establish a stimulating and secure environment for the social and physical development of children;

2) encourage parents to combine parenthood with outside employment or studying;

3) encourage the use of child care in a preventative capacity, to meet the needs of children with special circumstances (e.g. health problems); and,

4) introduce the children of new immigrants to Swedish culture and to maintain contact with their native culture.

It is the aim of the current government to make participation in the public day-care system possible for all children including those whose parents stay at home, those in family day care, and those living in sparsely populated areas. The government aims to introduce legislation by 1991 toward these ends (Leira, 1987, pp. 93).

In 1985, the Swedish Parliament proposed to make day-care available to all children 1 1/2 - 6 years old by 1991. The proposal specifies that there will be a range of different forms of day care and that access to these different forms will vary with the situation of the parents. Leira (1987) describes the different possibilities as such:

"The children of employed parents and of students will be accommodated in full-time day care in centres, cooperatives or family day care from the age of 18 months, if the parents so wish.

Children in family day care and children whose parents are at home are to be entitled to a place in part-time day-care centres from the age of 4.

For children under 4 places are to be offered in "oppen forskola", that is "open pre-school" for children accompanied by an adult" (Leira, 1987, pp. 93-94).

The proposal also combines a centralized curriculum with a strong element of decentralization. The National Board of Health and Welfare has been instructed to design the program. Each of the 284 local authorities have been instructed to plan for the development of day care within its districts. In the plan, the local authorities are to include such things as the forms of day-care, the group size, and the staff:child ratio. In addition, parents are to be involved in both planning and running the day-care services (Leira, 1987, p. 94).

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** Following World War II and as a consequence of industrialization, large-scale migration into cities triggered the growth of the preschool system. In the late 1960's, a rapid increase in the number of women in the labour force, and a higher level of ambition for giving children a good growth environment led to the acceleration of the expansion of preschool programs (Swedish Institute, nd).

The earliest public child care programs in Sweden were started in the late 19th century and the early 20th century. There were creches which were created as poor relief programs. They were open all day and their staff were mainly untrained. There were also kindergartens, part-time institutions for the children who came from more well-to-do homes. "They had well-trained teachers, a pedagogical program and suitable premises" (Swedish Institute, nd).

In 1976, the Swedish Parliament adopted the objective that a child care place be provided for all children whose parents are gainfully employed or studying, and for those children who are in need of special support and encouragement. The goal was to provide full coverage within ten years (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - Maternity leave is a total of 26 weeks with 0-10 weeks available pre-natally and 16-26 weeks available post-natally. The benefits that the worker is entitled to receive are 90% of salary, with a maximum amount of earnings insured (Cooke, 1986, p. 243).

All family leave is financed through social insurance funds. This fund is financed by contributions from the government and the employer. The self-employed receive parental insurance benefits. However, they must contribute to the social insurance plan on the same basis as do employers (Cooke, 1986, p. 243).

Fathers have the opportunity to take paternity leave with job security, and the same income replacement provisions as are applicable to mothers. The pre-natal leave and the first 29 days of post-natal leave are reserved for the mother. The Nordic countries allow fathers to share child care leave for two reasons: 1) to promote the sharing of domestic labour between spouses and 2) in case of some emergency such as illness or death of the mother (Cooke, 1986, p. 245).

The same maternity leave and income replacement is available for adopting mothers as is for natural mothers, for a period equivalent to the post-natal period. Fathers can share adoption leave with mothers, just as they are allowed to share birth leave (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Extended Child Care Leave - Parents are eligible to take an extended leave of 26 weeks. There is some flexibility in terms of how this leave can be taken. It can be taken in the form of shorter working hours at any time up to and including the child's first year at school (at the age of eight) or in full-days, before the child is eighteen months old. This provision is designed to support the general goal of improving family life, allowing parents an opportunity to spend more time with their young children on an on-going basis (Cooke, 1986, p. 246). For example, this leave could be taken during pregnancy; to take part in parenthood training; to help their children adjust to a day nursery or start regular school; during a child's illness, or in the event of problems at school (Swedish Institute, nd).

The extended leave is financed through the regular social security system, the first thirteen weeks at 90% of salary and the last thirteen weeks at a flat-rate benefit (Cooke, 1986, p. 246).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - Sixty days per family for each child under 12 years of age (Cooke, 1986, p. 247).

Child Care Legislation - In 1968, a Royal Commission on Child Care was appointed to investigate the organization and the quality of day care and to propose reforms. In "Forskollagen", the 1975 act governing preschool education and in "Barnomsorgslagen", the 1977 act governing child care, the aims of day care were formulated. Child care is regulated according to The Social Services Act of January 1, 1982, in particular sections 12-18 (Leira, 1987, p. 92).

Municipalities are required by a 1975 law to provide places in preschool programs for all children six years old (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** On a national level, the Ministry of Social Affairs is responsibile for preparing laws and proposals regarding day care. The National Board of Health and Welfare is responsible for supervising the development of day-care facilities and for administering the grants to municipal day-care. In addition, the National Board of Health and Welfare is responsible for publishing educational programs, planning for day care work organization, preparing educational material for staff, and communicating recent developments in day-care research.

Each local authority is responsible for planning and providing day care in it's own municipality. The planning and provision is actually dealt with by the social welfare committee and the local social administration. Some districts hire educational consultants to advise on educational matters and arrange for staff training. However, generally this is the responsibility of the administrators who are in charge of day care (Leira, 1987, pp. 94-95).

98% of all day-care services are organized by the local authorities. There are a few day care centres that are operated by the counties (e.g. centres for children of hospital staff), about 150 centres operated by parents' cooperatives, and some by religious organizations (Leira, 1987, p, 95).

For each day care, there is a director who has the responsibility of management and educational planning. There is not usually a Board of Directors so the director reports directly to the local social administration (Leira, 1987, p. 95).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** Parents have the option of utilizing private or municipal child care. Apart from unlicensed family child care and a small number of Montessori-type private facilities, all child care in Sweden is municipally operated (Cooke, 1986, p. 263). In 1982, 58% of the children whose parents were gainfully employed were taken care of by municipal child care (Swedish Institute, nd).

The municipal child care programs include preschool programs, family day nurseries, or leisure time centres (Swedish Institute, nd).

Preschool is available full- or part-time. The programs where children attend preschool for four or more hours per day are called "Day nurseries" (Swedish Institute, nd). In some literature they are also referred to as "Daghem" or child care centres (Cooke, 1986, p. 263). Children 0 - 6 years old are eligible to attend these (Swedish Institute, nd). The programs where children attend for less than four hours a day are called "Part-time groups". Children 4 - 6 are eligible to attend these (Swedish Institute, nd).

Children eligible for family day nurseries are 0 - 12, and children eligible for leisure time centres are 7-12 (Swedish Institute, nd).

Workplace care is very rare, sick children are cared for at home by municipally-employed child minders, and a few municipalities are now testing the feasibility of evening and night care (Cooke, 1986, pp. 263-264).

In addition to these other programs, in the public child care system there are park playground activities, open preschools (open to parents and children to attend), and toy-lending libraries. These programs enable parents and children to meet with peers and share experiences (Cooke, 1986, p. 264).

Child care accounts for approximately 3.4% of the social welfare budget in Sweden. A major source of funds for social welfare in Sweden is a payroll tax on employers (Cooke, 1986, p. 266).

"Approximately 90% of municipal child care costs in Sweden are covered by central and municipal government subsidies to centres. In the same year, the central government subsidy covered 43% of municipal family child care operating costs, municipalities covered 44 % of the costs, and parent fees accounted for the remainder. Because capital costs are not included, costs of family child care are somewhat lower for the central government "(Cooke, 1986, p. 265).

In Sweden, the child care issues that are currently under consideration are: motivating the local authorities to increase their investment in day care; encouraging people to enter the child care field; developing a closer cooperation between day care and the formal school system; improving day care services for non-Swedish speaking children and for children with special needs; and discussing the role and form of private initiative in day care (Leira, 1987, pp. 101).

In several districts, there has been an attempt to increase cooperation between day care and the formal school system during the first years of school (Leira, 1987, p. 101).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** According to Leira (1987), at the end of 1984, 42% of 0-6 year old children had access to day care centres or family day care. 173,200, or 26% of the children were in day care centres, and 108,000 or 16% were in family day care. An additional 78,600 or 15% were attending part-time day care. Of the preschool children, more than 40% had access to public day care services.

The supply of child care does not meet the demand. The number of preschool places is still lower in Sweden than in many other industrialized countries. At the end of 1982, there was still a demand for care of about 88,000 additional children -- 60,000 in day nursery places and 27,000 in family day nurseries. 426,000 children had parents who were gainfully employed (Swedish Institute, nd).

At the end of 1982, there was still a demand for roughly 27,000 places for children aged seven to ten (Swedish Institute, nd).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: Seven years old (Cooke, 1987, p. 263)

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER CHILDREN: The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in Sweden is seven years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than seven years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children seven years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. PROGRAM NAME: Kommunal familjedaghem
[Organized other family care]

PROGRAM USER: Children ages 0-12; Infants, preschoolers, school-aged children outside of school hours (Cooke, 1986, p. 263). In 1984, subsidized family day care was provided in 31,300 homes. Of these homes, 5,000 or 16% took care of only preschool children aged 0-6 years, 25,400 or 81.5% took care of both preschool children and school-aged children, and 725 or 2.3% took care of only school children aged 7-12 year (Leira, 1987, p. 114).

Children with special needs for support receive priority on waiting lists. These children are integrated into the regular child care program, and such integration is encouraged early (Cooke, 1986, p. 264).

Family day care is used more in sparsely populated areas than in the cities (Leira, 1987, p. 115).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:
Kommunal familjedaghem is subsidized family day care (Leira, 1987, p. 103).

i) Program Philosophy - To provide children with a good, secure growth environment (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

ii) __Operator__ - The local authorities are responsible for operating kommunal familjedaghem. Each local authority employs individuals according to existing collective agreement. By the end of 1984, about 30,000 family day-care providers were involved, mostly women (Leira, 1987, p. 113 and Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

iii) __Location__ - No mention.

iv) __Time of Operation__ - Familjedaghem is available full or part-time for children aged 0-6, and part-time (e.g. before and after school for children aged 0-12 years) (Leira, 1987, p. 114).

v) __Program Delivery Cost__ - No mention.

vi) __Funding__ - Subsidized by the government. The local authorities and the parents cover the remaining costs (Leira, 1987, p. 117).

In 1978, the central government subsidy covered 43% of municipal family child care operating costs and municipalities covered 44 % of the costs. Because capital costs are not included, costs of family child care are somewhat lower for the central government (Cooke, 1986, p. 265).

Subsidies for family child care are lower than subsidies for day nurseries because the capital costs were lower. In 1984, subsidies for family child care were SEK 15 000 ($2482 Cdn) for a child attending full-time (Cooke, 1986, p. 266).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Parent fees accounted for what the central government and the municipalities did not contribute (13% of the costs) (Cooke, 1986, p. 265).

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - See "Child Care/Parent Communication" under the program Daghem (Leira, 1987, p. 115).

xi) **Staff:Child** - No formal regulation of the adult:child ratio in Swedish family day care. However, the National Board of Health and Welfare advises that a family day-care provider should not care for more than 4 children including their own (Leira, 1987, p. 115).

xii) **Staff** - An individual hired by the municipality. A municipal social services staff member to coordinate family child care providers (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

xiii) Staff Training - The family day care provider has usually taken a 90-100 hour or three week training course. 30% of family day care providers had completed the course as of 1984 (Cooke, 1986, p. 264 and Leira, 1987, p. 114.).

Many municipalities employ educational consultants to work with the day-care services e.g. helping children with special needs; providing in-service training for staff (Leira, 1987, p. 109).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No regulation. However, the National Board of Health and Welfare recommends up to four children including the child care provider's own children (Cooke, 1986, p. 263; Leira, 1987, p. 115).

72% of family day care homes have groups of 5 children or more while 27% have only 1-4 children. In 21% of the family day care homes, there are 8 or more children. Since most of the homes take care of children aged 0-12 years, not all of the children are usually present all day and not all of them at the same time (Leira, p. 114).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Family day care may be supplemented by part-time groups for children aged 5-6 years old (Leira, 1987, p. 115).

COVERAGE: At the end of 1984, 16% of children 0-6 years were in family day care and 30,000 family day-care providers were involved (Leira, 1987, pp. 105 and 113).

A 1982-83 survey measuring demand for day care found a need for family day care for 19% of all children (Leira, 1987, p. 116).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: All recognized caregivers are unionized, and earn average wages. As a result the turnover rate is low (Cooke, 1986, p. 264).

Since family day care is more flexible in terms of opening hours than day-care centres, it is probably more convenient than centre-care for parents who work nights or inconvenient hours (Leira, 1987, p. 115).

Even though the average net cost of full-time family day care is higher than that of full-time licensed care centres, the authorities may find family day care more economically sound than making capital outlays (Leira, 1987, p. 116).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: The ratio of staff:child is much higher than recommended by the Swedish Board of

National Health and Welfare. Local authorities must pay on average higher net costs for full-time family day care than for full-time centre care (Leira, 1987, p. 116).

Family day care workers often experience isolation and a lack of stimulation as a result of working alone at home. The development of centres like "open preschool" are improving this working situation now (Leira, 1987, p. 116).

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Daghem**
[Kindergarten]

PROGRAM USER: Children 0 - 6 years old. Children with special need of support are given priority in the waiting lists. For example, this could be children who have special physical, mental, social, or linguistic needs (Swedish Insitute, nd). Leira (1987) says that priority in full-time day care is also given to children whose parents are employed or studying. The local authorities have the responsible of deciding which criteria establish priority.

Some daghem and recreational centres are combined, and older school-age children attend as well (Leira, 1987, p. 106).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - Child care is not a replacement for parenting but rather an aid and a supplement to it. Children should become familiar with the society in which they live. Therefore, learning and development are encouraged by drawing on the children's life situation, their interests, previous experience, and special needs (Swedish Institute, nd). Child care should provide children with a secure growth environment (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

ii) **Operator** - 98% of daghem are operated by the local authorities. The other 2% are operated by parents' cooperatives or community organizations. Lately, there has been an increase in the number of parent cooperatives operating daghem (Leira, 1987, p. 103).

iii) Location - Preschools are generally located in residential areas so that children do not have to commute far and so that parents become more involved in the preschool and in their community (Swedish Institute, nd and Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

iv) Time of Operation - These centres are open nearly all year found. Hours of operation are usually between 6:30 - 6:45 a.m. and 6:00 - 6:30 p.m. A child spends at least four hours a day in day nursery. Programs of less than four hours are called Part-time groups (Swedish Institute, nd; Cooke, 1986, p. 263; and Leira, 1987, p. 106).

Approximately 80% of the children attend daghem at least 7 hours per day (Leira, 1987, p. 106).

v) Program Delivery Cost - Operating costs for day nurseries in 1984 are estimated to be about SEK 50 000 ($8275 Cdn) per child (Swedish Institute, nd).

See chart under "Funding" for more detail.

vi) Funding - Programs are financed through local tax revenues, parents' fees, and state subsidies financed via employer payroll fees (Swedish Institute, nd).

According to Leira (1987), the operating costs for day care [form of care unspecified] are divided between the local authority, central government and the parents. Previous to January 1986, government subsidies were granted based on number of places. Now the subsidies are calculated per child admitted. Private and public child care providers are eligible for government subsidies. However, in order to get a government subsidy, the care must be offered on a regular basis, and the provider must be non-profit-making.

The amount of subsidy the government contributes toward operating costs varies with the form of day care. These subsidies are then given per child, and calculated according to the number of hours the child attends, and the additional support required by the parent for the child (Leira, 1987, p. 97).

The remaining costs in public day care are taken care of by the local authority and parents. The local authority may help private day care centres financially.

The central government pays SEK 22 000 ($3310 Cdn) for each child who spends at least seven hours daily in the day nursery; and a half-subsidy of SEK 11 000 ($1820 Cdn) for children spending 4-7 hours in the nursery. In addition, a subsidy of SEK 30,000 ($4965 Cdn) is provided for full-time staff members who work directly with a group of children. For children receiving special support, a subsidy of SEK 6000 ($993 Cdn) for every 10 children is provided by the municipality (Cooke, 1986, p. 266).

"In 1978 the central government subsidy covered 51% of total child care centre costs, the municipal subsidy covered 39%, and parent fees accounted for 10%." (Cooke, 1986, p. 265).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - The local authorities determine the amount and form of parental payment. Equal payment for all children has been adopted by a few local authorities. However, most of the municipalities have fees that vary with the income of the parents (Leira, 1986, p. 99). On average, parents pay about SEK 5,000 per child per year (Swedish Institute, nd).

Parental fees can be no more than the total cost to the local authority per place minus the government grant (Leira, 1987, p. 98).

viii) Regulation - The National Board of Health and Welfare bears responsibility for setting operating guidelines, staff:child ratios, and training requirements for municipal child care services (Cooke, 1986, p. 264).

The programs are supervised by the county administrations and by the National Board of Health and Welfare (Socialstyrelsen). Health and Welfare is also responsible for stimulating pedagogical and social development work in the child care field (Swedish Institute, nd).

Criteria for priority placement are set by municipalities (Cooke, 1986, p. 264).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No specific mention. Generally stated that in several districts, there has been an attempt to increase cooperation between day care and the formal school system during the first years of school (Leira, 1987, p. 101).

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - Parents are encouraged to participate in day-care centres and are entitled to participate in planning and assisting in some of the day-care activities. When the child first begins to attend the day care centre, generally the parents spend some time at the centre. Individual parent-staff conferences are arranged 4 times per year, and parents' meetings are organized. In addition, parents have daily contact with the day-care when they drop them off or pick them up (Leira, 1987, p. 108).

Parents, professionals, and local and central administration are increasingly more interested in improving the child care/parent cooperation. The best examples of this trend are the development of parents' cooperatives and the "open preschools" (Leira, 1987, p. 108) (see "historical background" for more information about this).

Leira (1987) recommends reading the government proposal "Day Care for All Children" for more information on increasing the influence of parents in day care planning and development.

xi) **Staff:Child** - 1:5 (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

The National Board of Health and Welfare recommends for full-time centres the following staff:child ratios:
for children aged 6 months to 3 years,

2 adults per 5 children; and for children aged 3-6 years, 1 adult to 5 children (Leira, 1987, p. 108).

In full-time daghem, the registered staff:child ratio for children aged 0-6 is 4.3 children per adult. This ratio varies somewhat from municipality to municipality since it is decided locally (Leira, 1987, p. 108).

xii) __Staff__ - Employ recreational leaders and child minders (Swedish Institute, nd).

Each centre has a director who has the primary responsibility for day-care activities. The staff who interact directly with the children are preschool teachers and nursery nurses. Daghem that organize the children into extended sibling groups employ recreational staff or "fritidspedagoger". As part of their training students work in centres and conscientious objectors, young men aged 18-20 years, are allowed to work in a day-care centre instead of participating in military service (Leira, 1987, p. 107).

xiii) __Staff Training__ - Preschool teachers and recreational teachers have two and a half years of college training (Leira, 1987, p. 107).

Nursery nurses, also called child nurses, have one or two years of training during high school (Cooke, 1986, p. 264; Leira, 1987, p. 107).

Many municipalities employ educational consultants to work with the day care services, working with children who have special needs or providing in-service training for the staff (Leira, 1987, p. 109).

In 1984, of the staff in full-time day-care centres, 47% were preschool teachers, 46% were nursery nurses, 3% had other types of training, and 3% were untrained. Of the staff involved directly with the children, 6% were men (Leira, 1987, p. 107).

The majority of local authorities offer in-service training (Leira, 1987, p. 107).

Currently, the education of day-care personnel is being reorganized. The National Board of Health and Welfare is promoting the supplementation and updating of qualifications of day-care employees (Leira, 1987, p. 107).

xiv) **Group Composition** - Daghem organize children into groups in various ways:

- Toddlers' groups - generally for children aged 0 - 2 or 3 years;
- Siblings' groups - generally for children aged 2.5 years to school-age;
- Extended siblings' groups - which may include children 0 - schoolage;
- Age-segregated groups - which include children of the same age.

Segregating children into groups of the same age is not used much anymore (Leira, 1987, p. 103).

xv) __Group Size__ - Usually 15 - 25 children (Swedish Institute, nd).

Most daghem have 1-4 children's groups. The size of the groups varies with respect to the age of the children and the form of day care provided. Generally, children aged 0-3 years are 10-12 in a group, children aged 3-6 are 15-18 in a group, and mixed groups of 0-6 year-olds have 15-18 children in a group (Leira, 1987, p. 108).

xvi) __Space__ - No mention.

xvii) __Activities__ - The daghem curriculum includes both educational and caring activities. These activities are interspersed within those activities that are routine every day e.g. being-together period, rest period, meal time, and play (Leira, 1987, p. 109).

The educational activities are designed with the intellectual, social, and emotional development of the child in mind. As a result, in the earlier years, care and nursing are emphasized more, and in the later years, the educational aspect is (Leira, 1987, p. 109).

The day care maintains contact with the "barnavards-central", the child's medical centre. At this centre, the children receive health care and their development is observed. Through the centres, children who need special attention receive the necessary support e.g. physiotherapy, counselling, language training (Leira, 1987, p. 109).

Children who attend daghem all day are given one hot meal and two cold ones during the day (Leira, 1987, p. 109).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: According to Leira (1987), at the end of 1984, 173,200 children, 26% of 0-6 year olds, had access to day care centres.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Day care centres that offer quality care provide a secure and stimulating environment for children (Leira, 1987, p. 110).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: The hours of operation of "ordinary" day care centres do not meet the needs of parents who work at inconvenient hours (Leira, 1987, p. 110).

3. **PROGRAM NAME: Deltidsgrupp**
[Part-time child care]

PROGRAM USER: Intended primarily for children aged 5-6, who are cared for at home or in a family day care (Leira, 1987, p. 112).

According to the Social Services Act, local authorities are required to provide all 6 year olds with places in day care 3 hours per day or in deltidsgrupp. Most children attending are 6 years old (Leira, 1987, p. 111).

Children with special need of support are given priority in the waiting lists. For example, this could be children who have special physical, mental, social, or linguistic needs (Swedish Institute, nd).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - Child care is not a replacement for parenting but rather an aid and a supplement to it. Children should become familiar with the society in which they live. Therefore, learning and development are encouraged by drawing on the children's life situation, their interests, previous experience, and special needs (Swedish Institute, nd).

ii) **Operator** - Mainly organized by the local authorities. However, in some districts the Swedish Church or other voluntary organizations are operators. Lately, there has been an increase in the number of parent cooperatives operating deltidsgrupp (Leira, 1987, p. 103).

iii) __Location__ - Preschools part-time programs are generally located in residential areas so that children do not have to commute far and so that parents become more involved in the preschool and in their community (Swedish Institute, nd).

Often they share premises with sibling groups and infant programs, thereby enabling school-aged children to return to the location where they previously attended child care (Cooke, 1986, p. 263).

iv) __Time of Operation__ - usually run for at least 15 hours a week (e.g. three hours a day) (Cooke, 1986, p. 263; Leira, 1987, p. 111).

v) __Program Delivery Cost__ - See "Program Delivery Cost" under the program Daghem.

vi) __Funding__ - See "Funding" under the program Daghem.

vii) __Cost to Parent(s)__ - Part-time preschool for 6 year olds or for younger children needing special support is free to parents (Cooke, 1986, p. 265; Leira, 1987, p. 112).

viii) **Regulation** - See "Regulation" under the program Daghem.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - See "Child Care/School Coordination" under the program Daghem.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - See "Child Care/Parent Communication" under the program Daghem.

xi) **Staff:Child** - 1:8. It is recommended that there be 2 adults, one of whom is a preschool teacher, for every 40 children. This is with 2 groups of 20 attending 3 hours per day (Leira, 1987, p. 111).

xii) **Staff** - In 1984, 7,700 persons were working in part-time day care (Leira, 1987, p. 111).

xiii) **Staff Training** - Of the 7,700 persons working in part-time day care, 56% were preschool teachers, 38% were nursery nurses, and 4% had no training for working with children. The majority of the staff were women (Leira, 1987, p. 111).

For more information on the training of the staff, see *"Staff Training"* under the program Daghem.

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - Generally, the part-time groups consist of approximately 20 children (Leira, 1987, p. 111).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Structured, educationally based, play and group activities (Leira, 1987, p. 112).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: According to Leira (1987), at the end of 1984, 78,600 or 15% of children aged 0-6 years were attending part-time day care.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Kommunal Familjedaghem** [Organized other family care]

PROGRAM USER: Children ages 0-12 years old.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "Programs for school-aged child care for younger children".

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Primary School**
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children seven years and older (Kurian, (1988) p. 1176)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - One of the first European school systems to offer equal opportunity to all, even those in remote rural areas. The schools are seen as serving a complementary role to the family in terms of childrearing (Kurian, 1988, p. 1175-1176).

ii) Operator - Local municipality (Kurian, 1988, p. 1172).

iii) Location - Schools; conscious attempt to serve rural areas (Kurian, 1988, p. 1176).

iv) Time of Operation - 8 a.m. - 3 p.m. (Holmes, 1983, p. 625).

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Central government spends over 13% of its total budget on education (Kurian, 1988, p. 1179) or 7.5% of GNP (Holmes, 1983, p. 634).

vii) __Cost to Parents__ - Education is free.

viii) __Regulation__ - National Board of Education runs the State school system (Holmes, 1983, p. 630).

ix) __Child Care-School Coordination__ - No mention.

x) __Child Care-Parent Communication__- Officially encouraged because schools ar seen as complementing and supporting family life (Kurian, 1988, p. 1174).

xi) __Staff:Child__ - 1:17 (Kurian, 1988, p. 1176).

xii) __Staff__ - No mention.

xiii) __Staff Training__ - Two and a half years at a teacher training college (Kurian, 1988, p. 1180).

xiv) __Group Composition__ - No mention.

xv) __Group Size__ - No mention.

xvi) __Space__ - No mention.

xvii) __Activities__ - Curriculum for the first six years is the same for everyone. Swedish and math are emphasized (Kurian, 1988, p. 1176).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: One of the first European countries to offer equal opportunity to all including those in remote rural areas (Kurian, 1988, p. 1176).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATE PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

PROGRAM NAME: Leisure Time Centres
[Outside School Hours Care]

PROGRAM USER: Children 7 - 10 years old (sometimes up to 12 years old) during those parts of the day when they do not have school classes and school vacations. In accordance with the Social Services Act, children with special need of support are given priority in the waiting lists. For example, this could be children who have physical, mental, social, or linguistic problems (Swedish Institute, nd).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - No mention.

iii) **Location** - In residential areas generally to eliminate commuting for children (Swedish Institute, nd).

iv) **Time of Operation** - before and/or after school, as well as during any free hours during the school day. These centers are kept open nearly all year round. Hours of operation are usually between 6:30 - 6:45 a.m. and 6:00 - 6:30 p.m. (Swedish Institute, nd).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Programs are financed through local tax revenues, parents' fees, and state subsidies financed via employer payroll fees (Swedish Institute, nd).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - About 40-50% of day nursery cost. Since the average day nursery charge to parents is SEK 5,000, the average cost to parents for a leisure time centre space would be about SEK 2,000-2500 (Swedish Institute, nd).

viii) **Regulation** - Sweden's central government. The programs are supervised by the county administrations and by the National Board of Health and Welfare (Socialstyrelsen). Health and Welfare are also responsible for stimulating pedagogical and social development work in the child care field (Swedish Institute, nd).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Child:Staff** - No mention.

xii) **Staff** - employ recreational leaders and child minders (Swedish Institute, nd).

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - usually 15 - 25 children (Swedish Institute, nd).

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: in 1982, 60,600 children 7-12 years old had places in leisure time centres. At the end of 1982, there was a demand for about 27,000 places for 7-10 school-aged children.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS (USSR)

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UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS (USSR)

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

School-aged child care for young children is provided for by detskii sad under the authority of the educational authority of the local Soviet or by industrial enterprises or farm collectives. A fee is charged based on family income and the amount of care required. Usually, detskii sad are integrated with creches which serve a younger group of children under three years of age.

Primary schools are administered by the Ministries of Education of each of the fifteen republics. The curriculum tends to be teacher-centred and stresses language development. The trend is toward establishing very large schools. Compulsory attendance begins at 7 years of age and education is free.

For both of the above, it appears that care is quantitatively and qualitatively better in urban centres than rural areas.

Child care for older children is accomplished largely through an extensive network of officially sponsored clubs and activities usually operated after school and on weekends.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. **CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY:** "Child preschool institutions are, in close co-operation with the family, working for the comprehensive and harmonious development and upbringing of the child, are maintaining and improving health care, encouraging rudimentary practical skills and a love of work, fostering an aesthetic awareness, preparing children for school education and encouraging in them respect for their elders as well as love of socialist homeland and their own native region" (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.31).

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** Following the Revolution, a nation-wide system of social education for preschool age children was implemented. Lenin established the first kindergarten for working-class children in Petrograd in March 1918. Lenin viewed nursery schools and kindergartens as shoots of communism and stressed that they "can really emancipate women, really lessen and abolish their inequality with men as regards their role in social production and public life" (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.31).

The child care policies in the USSR appear to be guided by three socio-economic goals:

(1) to keep women in the work force (e.g. 51% of the work force in the Soviet Union are women) - Women retain the right to return to their jobs after child care leave. Child care leave does not interrupt the length of pensionable service.

(2) to keep the responsibility for child care and family in the hands of the women. There is no provision for fathers to take any child care leave.

(3) to encourage families to have more children. The upgraded maternity benefits and leaves for 1981 and the plans for 1984 and 1985 are prompted "to rationally combine social and family upbringing of children, to improve the position of working mothers, to narrow the differences in the living standards of families with and without children, and to provide favourable living conditions for young families" (Townson, 1985, p. 13).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - In the USSR, working women are entitled to a maternity leave of 8 weeks before childbirth and 8 weeks after at 100% of salary. The post-natal leave is extended to ten weeks if the delivery is complicated or the mother gives birth to two or more children (Townson, 1985, p. 14; Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.30).

Extended Child Care Leave - As of 1981, mothers are also entitled to extend their leave of absence at partial payment to care for their child until it is one year old. If they choose, mothers can extend the leave further without pay to care for their child until it is 18 months old. "All of these leaves are counted in the woman's uninterrupted length of service (pensionable service) and in the duration of work in her specialty.

In all cases, she retains her job" (Townson, 1985, p. 14; Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.30).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities- Working mothers who are nursing can choose to reduce their workday by one hour or take 30 minute nursing breaks every three hours. No wages are deducted. If the nursing mother or a mother with an infant less than one year old is unable to do her regular job, she can be transferred to other work but retain her former average earnings (Townson, 1985, p. 14).

When working mothers are bringing up children, especially young children, working mothers are entitled to choose a more convenient working schedule. If a working mother wishes, she may set her hours for a part-time week, and return to her usual schedule later (Townson, 1985, p. 14).

When families have a relatively low income level per family member, they are paid an additional monthly allowance for children (Townson, 1985, p. 14).

As of 1981, the following changes were made to the system of benefits:

Women who have two or more children under 12 and who get an annual paid holiday of less than 28 days are entitled to receive an additional three-day paid leave and an unpaid two-week holiday;

A cash grant on the birth of first, second, and third children has been introduced. There were already grants for fourth and subsequent children;

For unmarried mothers, allowances have been increased and the period of benefit has been lengthened so that the payment period for each child now extends until the child is 16 years old, or 18 if he/she is a student and does not receive a monthly scholarship grant;

Better pension benefits for women who have given birth to and brought up five or more children (Townson, 1985, p. 14).

Child Care Legislation

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** Various departments run various types of preschool establishments.

The health department runs nursery schools. Various enterprises care for children of industrial and office workers. State or collective farms are responsible for the children of a given state or collective farm. The local departments of education care for all children residing in a given area (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.32).

"The Ministry of Education (USSR) and the Ministries of the Union and Autonomous Republics as well as their local organs handle pedagogic affairs and the supply of teaching personnel for preschool facilities regardless of their institutional affiliation. Health-care and hygienic work with children and the providing of personnel in this area are the concern of the appropriate governmental health departments" (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.32).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** Preschool establishments are of two types, nursery schools or nurseries which care for infants three months to three years of age and kindergartens which care for children 3 to 7 years of age (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.35).

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** In 1983-84, 15.5 million children were attending nursery schools and kindergartens. The problem of providing sufficient vacancies for all applicants has been solved in many cities but availability continues to be a problem in rural areas. For example, about 35% of those in need in rural areas have spaces. Summer preschools in rural areas serve 1 million additional children (Kurian, 1988, p. 1305 and Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 32).

In 1979, in the rural areas of the Soviet Union, there were 44,000 nursery schools and kindergartens attended by over 2 million children (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 32).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING: 7 years.

B. DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN: The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized under school-aged child care programs for younger and older children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in the USSR is seven years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children care will be defined as programs that children less than seven years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children seven years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: **Detskii sad**
Day Nursery
Nursery School
Kindergarten
[Preprimary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children three to seven years old (Kurian, 1988, p 1304).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) __Program Philosophy__ - The main function of preschool education is to assist the family in its socialization role, effect the all-round development of children and compensate for deficiencies in children's background (Kurian, 1988, p. 1305).

ii) __Operator__ - Educational authorities of the local Soviets or by enterprises and farm collectives (Kurian, 1988, p. 1305).

iii) __Location__ Locations include factories, plants and state farms (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 34). New urban housing developments and industrial complexes are not providing facilities for child care (Kurian, 1988, p. 1305).

iv) __Time of Operation__ 9 to 12 hours per day. There are some day nurseries where children whose mothers work night shifts can sleep over. There are some programs where children are only taken home on weekends, eg. for handicapped children (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 33).

v) __Program Delivery Cost__ - No mention.

vi) __Funding__ - No mention.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - Fee is based on family income and length of child's stay (Kurian, 1988, p. 1303).

viii) Regulation - Set by each of the 15 republics' Ministries of Education (Kurian, 1988, p. 1314).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination Day Nurseries do not have to be coordinated with school in terms of logistics because the children attend day nursery for whatever time period is necessary. However, preschool curriculum is designed, organized, and developed by the government specialists so there will be coordination in this area. In 1982, more than three quarters of the first grade children had spent at least one year in a preschool preparatory class (Kurian, 1988, p. 1305).

x) Child Care/Parent Communication Close ties are kept with the families of the children by the teachers of the nursery schools. There are regular meetings of parents and teachers and lectures for the parents on child education. Free consultation and lectures are provided by doctors and lawyers for the parents and special literature is published on child care and education (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 37).

xi) **Staff:child** - No mention.

xii) **Staff** Each nursery school class is staffed by one teacher and one nanny (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p, 35).

"Great demands are made on the directors and teachers of preschool establishments. They must be highly versatile, possess a knowledge of child care and psychology and of educational methods, they must be good storytellers and know how to sing, dance and draw" (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p.38).

xiii) **Staff Training** Teachers of 2 to 3 year olds must have graduated from secondary pedagogic schools and completed a short course in nursing. Generally, the head of a nursery school must be either a doctor or a teacher (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 38).

The personnel for nursery school is carried out by the corresponding faculty in 30 pedagogic institutes and 201 pedagogic schools (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 38).

xiv) **Group Composition** Usually nurseries are combined with creches which care for children up to three years old. The combined establishment is divided into groups by age. The groups are as follows:

2 month to 1 year olds; 1 year to 2 year olds; and 2 year to 3 year olds; junior 3-4 year olds; intermediate 5-6 year olds; and senior 7-8 year olds (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 35).

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities The activities of the nursery schools are not limited to caring for the children's physical well-being. The teachers are concerned about the development of the children's motor and speech faculties. Also, cognitive and aesthetic education, patriotism and respect for adults are important. In the summer, nursery schools that are not located in park zones are moved to the country (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 36 and Kurian, 1988, p. 1305).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In cities, 70% of eligible children were accommodated in 1984; provision for rural children was only half this amount. The goals are 85% urban and 70% rural (Kurian, 1988, p. 1305).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: compliance with the needs of working mothers. For instance, there are seasonal nursery schools in the rural areas established during the summer months for the harvest time (Kuzin and Kondakov, 1977, p. 33) .

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

PROGRAM NAME: **Nachal'naia shkola**
[Primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children 7-10 years of age (Kurian, 1988, p. 1307).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - The schools are to provide equal access to opportunities for all through homogeneity of curricula and instructional methods, inculcate moral values consistent with Communist Ideology and produce useful, productive citizens (Kurian, 1988, pp. 1300-1301).

ii) Operator - No mention.

iii) Location - Schools.

iv) Time of Operation - No mention.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - From the USSR republics and local levels. Expenditure on education was 7.7% of total state expenditure in 1983. Other funds from industrial enterprises, state and collective farms or cooperatives (Kurian, 1988, p. 1315).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Free since 1977 including books and transportation (Kurian, 1988, p. 1303).

viii) **Regulation** - Controlled by each of the fifteen republics' Ministries of Education. Final authority is the USSR Ministry of Education (Kurian, 1988, p. 1314).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:child** - 1:17 (Kurian 1988, p. 1282).

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - Teacher training is carried out primarily in higher education institutions and are university or pedagogical institute graduates (Kurian, 1988, p. 1317).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - Maximum of 40 (Kurian, 1988, p. 1306).

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Essentially teacher-centred curricula, language is stressed strongly followed by math and nature studies.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Efforts have been made to establish very large schools. With few exceptions, all children attend (Kurian, 1988, p. 1294, 1306).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: Rural area schools face high staff turnover, qualified staff and small schools (some with 20 children) (Kurian, 1988, p. 1306).

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Table 6 Non-parental Child Care Provision for Children Younger than Five in the United Kingdom, 1985.

UNITED KINGDOM

I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

In England and Wales, the Department of Health and Social Security (DHSS) administers child care policy and the Department of Education and Science (DES) administers educational policy including that of nursery education. The Local Education Authorities (LEAs) fund education and the Local Authorities (LAs) fund some child care programs.

The LEAs fund nursery schools and classes [pre-primary schooling], reception classes [early primary schooling], and primary school [primary schooling]. Since schools are funded totally by the Local Educational Authorities, school is free except for meals and school uniforms.

The funding of the child care programs is more complex. Therefore, the cost to parents of child care varies with the program. By program, the user, the funding, and the cost to parent are as follows:

1) Local Authority day nurseries take care of children that are 0-4 years old and children "at risk". These nurseries are funded by the LA although sometimes they charge low parental fees based on means testing;

2) The private or voluntary nurseries take care of children 0-4 years old as well. However, since the philosophy for existence of these nurseries

varies, there is a diversity of operators, users, funding sources and parental fees.

In general, the users of the private and voluntary nurseries are the children of parents who work. For instance, the users of private nurseries are people who can afford to pay the fees; the users of employer operated nurseries are children of employees; and the users of community operated nurseries are children of working parents.

Funding for the private or voluntary nurseries varies too with the operator, privately operated programs funded by user fees, employer operated programs funded by user fees and employer subsidies, and community operated programs funded by government grants, grants from charities, and parent fundraising.

3) The users of playgroups are almost always children 0-4 of parents who do not work. Playgroups are funded by Local Authorities fundraising, and parental fees.

4) The users of outside school hours care are children 3-10 years old who cannot go home after school. Very few outside school hours care programs are operated by the schools. The LA fund a few out-of-school schemes. In addition the LAs fund some other 'non-care' schemes like leisure and recreation and community services,

and voluntary organizations. Most outside school hours care are operated individually. About 90% have voluntary management committees.

In the UK, the compulsory age for children to start school is 5 years old. However, before they begin primary school, some children attend nursery schools and classes [pre-primary schooling] and some children attend reception classes [early primary schooling]. The provision of nursery places varies between countries and within countries. In Wales, over one-third of children aged 3 and 4 had a nursery place in 1984-86, while only 13% of 3- and 4-year olds in Northern Ireland had places. Nursery coverage in England ranged from 0 to 66%.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. **CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY:** According to Kamerman (1988), the approach that the United Kingdom adopts toward child care is to leave individuals to work out their own solutions.

This view of UK child care policy was expressed by John Patten, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State at the Department of Health and Social Security (DHSS), in February 1985, when he said "Day care will continue to be primarily a matter of private arrangement between parents and private and voluntary resources except where there are special needs, but we should like to see LA continuing to develop their supporting, supervisory and information roles alongside their registration functions" (Cohen, 1988, p. 18).

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** In the 19th century, in response to industrialization, there was the development of outside family care (Moss, 1988, p. 120).

The 1870 Education Act required that primary schools be provided in all areas. In the beginning, these schools took a considerable number of children aged 2-4. In fact, in 1900, 616,000 places were available, or 43% of the 3-4 age group were in school. However, by 1919 the number of children in this age group had dropped to about 17%. By 1938 there were only 9,500 places in this type of provision and no compensating increase in pre-primary education (Moss, 1988, p. 120).

In 1918, the law enabled local health authorities to establish day nurseries for children aged 0-4 years old. However, only 4,000 places had been produced by 1938. With the advent of the Second World War, women were encouraged to participate in wartime industry. The ensuing need for child care prompted a growth in day nursery places. By 1945, the number of places had increased to 62,000. Following the war, the number of day nursery places was quickly reduced. As a result, today there are about half the day nursery places as there were in 1945. The 1944 Education Act made it the responsibility of LEAs to provide adequate pre-primary coverage (Moss, 1988, p. 120). Little was done until 1972 when in response to the recommendations of the Plowden Report and the 1972 Department of Educational Services (DES) White Paper, nursery school and nursery school classes began to be offered part-time not full-time. As a result, during the 1975-1985 period, while the number of nursery school and nursery class places did not increase significantly, the number of children experiencing nursery school did (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

Since 1968, there has been a reduction in rate support grant to LAs (Moss, 1988, p. 120). As a result, the trend of LAs has been to withdraw from the provision of publicly provided nursery care and to increase the sponsored use of childminders, playgroups, and voluntary agencies meeting the needs of special groups. The government guidelines in 1968 indicate that priority for enrollment in day nurseries does not go to children with employed parents but does go to children with employed single parents (Cohen, 1988 p. 26).

There has been an increase in public funding of day nurseries through other means e.g. the longstanding urban aid programme, the Community Programme, and the DHSS Under Fives initiative. While this public funding has stimulated the provision of voluntary-run nurseries, it has not compensated for the decline in other forms of private and voluntary provision (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

In total, the number of LAs and private and voluntary nurseries has increased only by 6% between 1975-85 (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

Playcentres began to develop in the mid-1960s. By 1975, 16,227 playcentres were offering a total of 394,000 places. While they have continued to increase in number since, they have been doing so at a much slower rate (Moss, 1988, p. 120).

There has been a decrease in the number of reception spaces during 1975 and 1985. This decrease is the result of a lower birth rate rather than a reduction in the number of places available (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - "In the United Kingdom, all women, including the self-employed, receive the flat-rate benefit for 18 weeks if they have one year of insurance contributions". Eleven weeks of this 18 week leave must be taken prior to the birth and seven weeks must be taken after. Any pre-natal leave not taken prior to the birth is forfeited (Cooke, 1986, pp. 241 and 243).

Women who have two years of service with the same employer receive an employer top-up to 90% of their regular salaries for 6 weeks (Cooke, 1986, p. 241). The employer can reclaim this top-up in full from the State Maternity Fund (Townson, 1985, p. 28).

Only when women have had two years' service with the same employer are they entitled to be re-instated after their maternity leave (Townson, 1985, p. 28).

Adopting parents have no legislated entitlement to either leave or benefits (Cooke, 1986, p. 244).

Extended Child Care Leave - There is an extended leave period for 12 to 18 weeks with a flat-rate benefit for one to seven weeks and a period of no benefits for 11 weeks (Cooke, 1986, p. 245).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - No statutory provisions are made for any other kind of parental leave (Townson, 1985, p. 28).

Child Care Legislation -

The 1870 Education Act
The 1944 Education Act
The 1980 Education Act
The 1959 Schools Regulations
The 1946 National Health Service Act
The 1968 Health Services and Public Health Act
The Ministry of Health Circular 37/68
The 1948 Nurseries and Childminders Act

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:**

Child care services for under-fives in England - The Department of Health and Social Security (DHSS) has the main responsibility for child care policy. The Department of Education and Science has the responsibility for education provided by LEAs. This includes the provision of nursery education for three and four year old children (Cooke, 1986, p. 266; Cohen, 1988, p. 98).

Services for children over five in England - The Department of Health and Social Security, the Department of Education and Science, and the Department of Environment share the responsibility for administering services for school-aged children. All three departments help fund the National Out of School Alliance, a voluntary organization which looks for ways to improve child care provision. (Cohen, 1988, p. 98).

Children’s play is coordinated within the Department of the Environment by the Minister for Play. In 1983, the Government established Play Board, a charitable organization responsible for coordinating play policy, and in 1987, Play Board was abolished. Their role was taken over by the Sports Council which established a Children's Play and Recreation Unit. While the recreational activities of the unit serve as an informal way of meeting the needs of children after school and on holidays, the Department does not view itself as having any responsibility for child care (Cohen, 1988, p. 98).

Various departments of the LA have responsibility for the out-of-school and holiday schemes and recreational facilities -- social services, education, leisure services, recreation amenities, or community services (Cohen, 1988, p. 99).

Child care services for under-fives in Wales - The Welsh Office has the responsibility for child care services. However, separate departments have responsibility for social services and education services (Cohen, 1988, p. 98).

Services for children over five in Wales - As in England, a number of LA departments at the local level are responsible. However, the Welsh Office is responsible overall (Cohen, 1988, p. 99).

Child care Services for under-fives in Scotland - In Scotland, child care services operate under different legislation than England and Wales, and are the responsibility of the Scottish Office. Social work and education functions are both under the Scottish

Education and are becoming increasingly integrated (Cohen, 1988, p. 98).

Services for children over five in Scotland - As in England, a number of LA departments at the local level are responsible. However, the Scottish Office is responsible overall (Cohen, 1988, p. 99).

Child care services for under-fives in Northern Ireland- Child care services operate under different legislation than England and Wales. The departmental responsibility for child care services is divided centrally between the Department of Education and the Department of Health and Social Services (Cohen, 1988, p. 98).

Services for children over five in Northern Ireland- The Education and Library Boards are responsible for out-of-school and holiday schemes. In addition, the Department of Education has funded a coordinating agency in regards to play. This organization is called Play Board Northern Ireland and unlike the British counterpart still exists (Cohen, 1988, p. 99).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** "The great majority of care arrangements in the United Kingdom are made primarily by parents and paid for by them, unassisted by government" (Cooke, 1986, p. 267).

In the United Kingdom, public and private child care are available. Both the public and private sectors offer day nursery care, care by family day home providers (childminders) and nursery school care. The private sector also offers play groups.

In the UK, the child care programs available for children under three years old are as follows: LA, private and voluntary day nurseries [nurseries]; childminders [other family caregivers]; and playgroups [playcentres].

For children 3-5 years old, the child care programs available are as follows: childminders [other family caregivers]; playgroups [playcentres]; nursery school or class [preprimary schooling]; and reception class [early primary schooling].

For children 5-10 years old, the child care programs available are as follows: childminders [other family caregivers]; primary schooling; and some outside-school hours child care [outside-school hours child care]. To see chart comparing child care programs available internationally, turn to the "Introduction to Part I" of the report.

TABLE 6

F. CHILD CARE COVERAGE: Non-parental child care provision for Children Younger than Five in the United Kingdom, 1985.

Type of provision	No. of places	% of pop'n aged 0-4 for whom this type of provision is available
Local Educational authorities nursery class or school	338,541 (a,b)	9.4
Local Educational Authorities primary school	295,202	8.2
Local Authorities day nursery	32,964	0.9
Registered childminder	144,908	4.0
Private and voluntary day nurseries	27,533	0.8
Private schools	35,000 (a)	1.0
Playschools	468,945	13.0
Non-registered childminders	16,000 (c)	0.7

(a) Figures for Local Educational Authority (LEA) nursery classes and schools, for private nursery schools and for LEA primary schools refer to number of "children attending", rather than places, i.e. totals include substantial numbers of part-time pupils.

(b) Predominantly 3 and 4 year-olds.

(c) Recent research suggests that 20% of childminders are not registered.

Source: Cohen (1988).

In the UK, there is provision for about a fifth of 3- and 4-year olds in nursery schools and classes but 83% of these are part-time (Cohen, 1988, p.42).

The percentage of under-fives attending LEA primary school classes in the UK in 1984-88 are as follows: in England, 26.5% aged 3-4 years; in Scotland, 7.9% are aged 3-4 years; in Wales, 31% are aged 3-4 years; and in Northern Ireland, 32.1% are aged 3-4 years (Cohen, 1988, p. 46).

NOOSA estimates that there are 500 out-of-school schemes that meet their definition of outside school hours care. These programs provide care for about 12,000 children after school and for 30,000 children during the school holidays (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

III. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. **AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING:** The Education Act 1944 states that children must attend school from the beginning of the term after they turn 5 years old (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

B. **DEFINITIONS OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:** The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in the UK is the term after the child turns five years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children will be defined as programs that children less than five years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children five years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Day Nurseries Local Authority day nurseries**
Private or voluntary day nurseries
[Nurseries]

PROGRAM USER:

LA day nurseries - Full- or part-time care for children 0-4 years old who are considered to be in need of extra help because of some problem or because of the social or economic circumstances of their parents. Increasingly, "extra help" is coming to mean "at risk". A study showed that in 1983 three-quarters of the children were referred by health visitors or by social services as compared with 44% in 1973 (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

More places for ethnic minority children were provided by LA nurseries than by any other preschool institution (Cohen, 1988, p. 28).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - Since the non-statutory day nurseries (unlicensed) can set their own age limits and since babies require a higher staff:child ratio, most non-statutory day nurseries do not take children under 2 years (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

Priorities vary with the operator e.g. in private nurseries, the ability to pay the fees is the criterion; in employer-run nurseries, children of employees are the priority; and at community nurseries, the children of working parents have priority (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

Children who attend the private day nurseries are generally from the higher economic status homes (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

Most of the children attending private nurseries had two working parents or a single working parent (Cohen, 1988, p. 28).

Most of the children attending private nurseries were not from socially disadvantaged homes (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

While nurseries generally have a policy of accepting handicapped children, problems of accommodation and staffing mean that very few take handicapped children (Cohen, 1988, p. 28).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy

LA day nurseries - The aim of LA nurseries is to provide full- or part-time care for children who are considered to be in need of extra help (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - The aim of private or voluntary day nurseries is to provide full-time care for the children of working parents (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

ii) Operator

LA day nurseries - Run and managed by social services departments with the exception of a few jointly funded children's centres and the few authorities that are integrating services for under-fives education (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - Run and managed by many different organizations e.g. community groups, employers, voluntary organizations and private individuals (Cohen, 1988, p. 26).

iii) Location

LA day nurseries - Generally urban centres, mostly in England (Cohen, 1988, p. 28).

The facilities are generally not constructed specifically for the nursery school. In most cases, the facilities do not meet the needs of the nursery school because they are housed in extremely old Victorian buildings and even prefabricated huts (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - It is difficult to establish trends. While most private or voluntary day care nurseries are generally in urban centres, a greater proportion of the private or voluntary than the LA day nurseries were in rural areas

(12% versus 5% of the total day nurseries) (Cohen, 1988, p. 28).

Rarely are the facilities constructed specifically for the nursery school. The Thomas Coram Study indicated that of 31 nurseries studied in London only two were specifically designed and constructed for the purpose of nursery school. Most of the facilities are converted houses, flats, rooms, classrooms or portacabins, some with appalling facilities (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

iv) Time of Operation

LA day nurseries - open from 8:00 a.m. till 6:00 p.m. (Cohen, 1988, p. 27).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - open from 8:00 a.m. till 6:00 p.m. with some variation (Cohen, 1988, p. 27).

v) Cost of Program

LA day nurseries - 80.00 pounds per week per child, or 16.00 pounds per day per child (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - 80.00 pounds per week per child (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

vi) Funding

vi) Funding

LA day nurseries - Generally, the LAs bear the cost of the program (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Private or voluntary day nurseries- Funding depends upon the operator of the nursery e.g. privately operated nurseries are funded by user fees; employer-run nurseries by employer subsidies and user fees; and community nurseries by grants from local government and/or charitable bodies, and fund-raising involving the parents (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

vii) Cost to Parent(s)

LA day nurseries - Some LA day nurseries charge a fee based on means testing but usually this fee is low. Parents also pay for the children's meals unless they qualify for free meals on a means test (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Private or voluntary day nurseries- Charges to parents varied from nil to 80.00 pounds per week (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

viii) Regulation

LA day nurseries - LAs are empowered by the National Health Service Act 1946 (amended in 1977 and 1983) to make arrangements for the care of preschool children. This includes providing day nurseries and making reasonable charges for them (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

In addition, the LEAs are empowered by the Education Act (1980) to second teachers from their nursery schools and classes to work in day nurseries (Cohen, 1988, p. 31)

The Ministry of Health Circular 37/68 has established the standards in day nurseries. The standards covered are accommodation, staff:child ratios, health, feeding and general care, and staff training. Suggestions are also made about play material and toys (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

In 1985, the DHSS issued draft guidance on day care provision. Once this is finalized it will cover admissions policy, optimum size, staffing ratios, age of children, staff and staff training, regime and curriculum, parent involvement, safety, record keeping and links with other services (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

"LA day nurseries are the responsibility of social service departments and are monitored by these departments. There is no national system of checking on standards in day nurseries" (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

Private or voluntary day nurseries- Private or voluntary day nurseries should be registered with their local social services departments as laid out in the Nurseries and Childminders Act (1948).

Those nurseries operated by other statutory bodies like the education departments, health authorities or the armed forces are exempt from these regulations. Despite this legislation, many nurseries do not register (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

As with LA day nurseries, recommended standards are set in the Ministry of Health circular 37/68 (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

The registered non-statutory day nurseries are also the responsibility of the social services departments and should be monitored by the department. However, there is a great deal of variation in the amount of supervision these nurseries get from one authority to another (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No specific mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under United Kingdom's "Part II Environment".

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication**

LA day nurseries - There has been an increase in child care/parent communication that parallels a shift in the mandate of the LA day nurseries. Now that the focus of the LA day nurseries has changed from day nursery to family centre, educating and working with parents is viewed as one of the most important aspects of the work of day nursery staff.

Parents are also more involved in fund-raising and practical help than ever before. However, parents still have a low level of involvement in the management of the nurseries (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - The Thomas Coram study found that in private day nurseries, parental involvement ranged from little in private nurseries to complete in some community nurseries (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

xi) **Staff:Child**

LA day nurseries - The DHSS recommends a 1:4 ratio. In practice, many authorities aim for a ratio of 1:5 for over-twos and 1:3 for under-twos. DHSS statistics for 1983 show an overall ratio of 1:3.7 (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Private or voluntary day nurseries- Staff:child ratios varied from 1:2.4 to 1:8.5 with an average of 1:4.6 (Cohen, 1988, p.29).

xii) Staff

LA day nurseries - No national information on turnover. However, Van der Eyken (1979) had a strong impression that LA nurseries had high turnover, absenteeism, and sickness.

xiii) Staff Training

LA day nurseries - Most staff in day nurseries have a Nursery Nurse Examination Board (NNEB) qualification. To earn this qualification, one must attend a 2-year course. This course has no formal entrance qualifications and it has a strong vocational component. The courses are run by colleges of high education. During the course, students spend a lot of time in placements. Most students start the course at age 16 and finish by age 18 (Cohen, 1988, p. 57).

The more senior members of staff often have additional qualifications such as the Certificate of Social Services or the newer certificate in Post Qualifying Studies. Many also have had in-service training from their LAs, particularly in management.

Finally, while some nurseries have unqualified nursery assistants, the number of these is decreasing (Cohen, 1988, p. 28).

The social services departments run in-service training courses for the staff of LA nurseries on such topics as counselling, social work, first aid, language development, interviewing, training, and working with handicapped children (Cohen, 1988, p. 30).

Van der Eyken (1979) found that nurseries are now more likely to be in touch with outside agencies and specialists (e.g. psychologists, speech therapists and social workers). Cohen believes that this change probably reflects the transition of the LA day nurseries from day nurseries to family centres for children at risk (Cohen, 1988, p. 30).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - Less information is available about the training of staff in private or voluntary day nurseries.

A Thomas Coram study that was restricted to (1) day nurseries that cared for babies under one year and (2) day nurseries in Greater London found that 80% of the staff of private or voluntary day nurseries were qualified. Almost all the staff had an NNEB and in most cases the officer in charge had a higher degree (e.g. teacher's certificate, CSS) (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

An earlier study by Osborne and Millbank found that 42% of staff in independent nurseries had no qualifications (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

The TCRU study found that opportunities for staff development in private or voluntary day nurseries were variable but generally poor (Cohen, 1988, p. 30).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Care by public and private nurseries is available for less than 2% of the 0-4 population. As time goes by, LA nursery places are available only for children considered "at risk". Northern Ireland has no LA nurseries. Very often in rural U.K. there is no longer any LA nursery provision (Cohen, 1988, p. 25).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS:

LA day nurseries - With the changing intake of the nurseries, the LA day care nurseries are in greater touch with outside agencies and specialist workers (e.g. psychologists, speech therapists and social workers) (Cohen, 1988, p. 30).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES:

LA day nurseries - In studying LA day nurseries, Van der Eyken found that two-thirds of the officers thought their staff were not sufficiently qualified to handle the large number of at risk children. Moreover, he thought they were not sufficiently qualified to deal with parents who were being encouraged to come to the nurseries to improve their parenting skills. It was suggested that while the NNEB provides a good basic education concerning the physical care and development of normal children, perhaps many of the staff are not adequately prepared to deal with the large number of serious behaviour problems of the children (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Van der Eyken also found that while the children in the nurseries were increasingly from ethnic minorities, few of the staff were (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

Although the 1980 Education Act gave LAs the power to make their teachers available to work in day nurseries, and while the act allowed provision of teaching equipment to nurseries, Van der Eyken found in 1983 that 83% of his sample of day nurseries in England still had no teaching support at all (Cohen, 1988, p. 32).

In most cases, the facilities do not meet the needs of the nursery school because they are housed in extremely old Victorian buildings and even prefabricated huts (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

Private or voluntary day nurseries - In a study conducted by Osborne and Millbank, it was found that 42% of staff in independent nurseries had no qualifications (Cohen, 1988, p. 29).

The Thomas Coram Study indicated that of 31 nurseries studied in London only two were specifically designed and constructed for the purpose of nursery school. Most of the facilities are converted houses, flats, rooms, classrooms or portacabins, some with appalling facilities (Cohen, 1988, p. 31).

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Childminders**
[Other Family Caregiver]

PROGRAM USER: Are registered to take children from a few weeks old to five years but many also take school-aged children before and after school and during the holidays. The National Childminders Association (NCMA) did a study in 1986 that showed that 86% of childminders provided care for children whose parents worked. However, the LAs now sponsor many 'priority' children in family day homes (Cohen, 1988, p. 34).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Childminders look after other people's children in their own home for payment. By law, they are supposed to be registered with their local social services department. Individual childminders (family day care providers) are registered and supported by social service departments (Cohen, 1988, pp. 34, 58).

iii) Location - In the home of the childminder (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

iv) Time of Operation - Generally from 8:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. although many minders take children only part-time. Most provide care all year round except for public holidays and a 2-week summer vacation (Cohen, 1988, p. 34).

v) **Cost of Program** - The NCMA pay guidelines of April 1986 suggested a weekly rate of 27.00 pounds minimum or an hourly rate of 80 pence minimum. Higher charges were also recommended for early morning and late evening hours, and for casual minding, or bank holidays and weekends (Cohen, 1988, p. 35).

vi) **Funding** - The LAs sometimes fund 'priority' children in family home day care (Cohen, 1988, p. 35). The amount that they pay the childminders is negotiated between individual authorities and minders (Cohen, 1988, p. 37).

Sometimes LAs give grants or loan equipment such as high chairs (Cohen, 1988, p. 35).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Usually the parents pay the whole fee unless the fee is subsidized by the LAs (Cohen, 1988, p. 34).

viii) **Regulation** - The 1948 Nurseries and Childminders Act (amended by the Health Services and Public Health Act 1968) requires that all childminders be registered with their LA's social services department. It also says that local social services departments should inspect the house for safety, health and space. The terms of the registration are decided by the LAs (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

The DHSS 1985 draft recommends that registration should include a home visit and that all childminders should be visited at least twice per year (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

It is estimated that about 20% of childminders are not registered. This percentage is thought to be even higher in Northern Ireland (Cohen, 1988, p. 33).

Guidance and information are provided to childminders by The National Childminders Association and The National Childminders Association (Northern Ireland). Even so, many childminders do not receive support (Cohen, 1988, p. 33 & 36).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under the United Kingdom's "Part II Environment".

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - The NCMA recommends that the parent visit the childminder's house at least two times before "settling in" the child. They also recommend that the settling-in period be a period of three or four weeks during which time the arrangement can be terminated by either party without notice (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

xi) Staff:child - The 1985 DHSS draft states that a childminder should not be registered for more than 3 children under 5 including her own (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

xii) Staff - Women in their own homes (Cohen, 1988, p. 36). A survey by the National Childminders Association in 1986 found only 2% described themselves as from another country or culture. Cohen believes that while this is low, it is probably an underestimate of the representation of different ethnic backgrounds. She believes that childminders from different cultural backgrounds may have difficulty writing in English and thus may not have returned the survey (Cohen, 1988, p. 59).

xiii) Staff Training - No specific qualifications are required to be a childminder. The Nurseries and Childminders Act (1948) says only that "suitable" people should register. While no qualifications are required, an increasing number of LAs are offering training courses that cover such topics as: first aid, play equipment, problems in child development, meal planning, and how to help a new child settle in (Cohen, 1988, p. 58).

The NCMA found in their 1986 survey that only 22% of childminders had attended a childminder's course. Most childminders have had experience with children by raising their own (Cohen, 1988, p. 59).

Thomas Coram interviewed 70 childminders from the London area and found that only 10% of them had some relevant training (e.g. NNEB, teaching, nursing) (Cohen, 1988, p. 37).

While Thomas Coram found that many minders lacked support from their LAs, the NCMA 1986 survey found that 26% of its respondents could go to a drop-in centre, 46% could hire equipment, 47% could use a toy library and 27% had been offered a childminders' course (Cohen, 1988, p. 37).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - Indoor and outdoor space depends upon the particular childminder's own home (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In general, the availability of places with childminders varies much across the different parts of the UK. Bronwen Cohen (1988) speculates that this variation may reflect the particular beliefs of the directors of social services departments. For example, some boroughs may register almost everyone who applies because they figure that the registrants will probably childmind with or without registration. Bronwen Cohen also speculates that there is probably a higher level of informal unregistered minding taking place in rural areas.

Four of the 0-4 population are cared for by childminders. This form of care has increased by over 60% in the 10-year period from 1975-1985 (Cohen, 1988, p. 36).

The National Childminder Association found that 42% of its members offered child care to school-aged children before and after school and on holidays (Cohen, 1988, p. 34).

There seems to be no waiting lists for childminders. The NMCA believe that in areas of high unemployment, there is a large supply of child care minders and a small demand. On the other hand, in areas of low unemployment, there is a small supply of child care minders and a high demand for child care (Cohen, p.35).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: Thomas Coram interviewed 70 childminders from the London area and found that only 10% of them had some relevant training (e.g. NNEB, teaching, nursing). (Cohen, 1988, p. 37).

Thomas Coram also found the following: that more than a third of the childminders in the study were against taking foreign/ethnic minority children or children who spoke a foreign language; that children of mothers born abroad were more likely to receive a poorer service; that Afro-Caribbean mothers were more likely to end up with poor quality childminders; and that there were insufficient childminders from ethnic minority groups (Cohen, 1988, p. 35).

3. **PROGRAM NAME: Playgroups**
[Playcentre]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 0-4 years. Most playgroups take 3- and 4-year olds, and sometimes 2 1/4 year olds. Therefore, 40% of children using playgroups are 3- and 4-year-olds in England and Wales (Cohen, 1988, p. 37).

Only 1% of groups belonging to the Pre-school Playgroup Association (PPA) have hours appropriate for use by working parents. Since the hours that playgroups are offered are not convenient for working parents, there are not very many children of working parents attending (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

Playgroups established to take children with handicaps are becoming more common. In 1985, 104 opportunity groups, groups organized for children with handicaps (along with non-handicapped children) were set up in England and Wales. This was about 1% of the total number of playgroups belonging to the Professional Playgroup Association (PPA) (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

In a 1975 survey, Osborne and Millbank found that less than 2% of children in playgroups were ethnic minority children (Cohen, 1988, p. 39).

Children who are eligible to attend are the children of any parents who can pay the fees (Cohen, 1988, p. 39).

During the last ten years, there has been a considerable increase in the number of 3- and 4-year-olds attending nursery schools, nursery classes and reception classes of primary schools, as a result the age of children attending playgroups and the length of time each child is enrolled has decreased (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy - The Pre-school Playgroups Association describes playgroups as giving 'children aged three and four the opportunity to engage in play activities through which they can learn skills appropriate to their state of development in company with other children and adults'. In addition, playgroups offer parents support and the opportunity to learn more about child development (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

ii) Operator - 62% of playgroups are non-profit-making community or church groups run by parent boards. 29% are commercially-operated by private individuals and 3% are run by social services departments. A few playgroups are operated by community agencies such as the Save the Children Fund (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

iii) Location - The figures of the Pre-school Playgroup Association indicate the following use of location: church halls (27%), village halls (13%), community centres (11%), school premises (including buildings no longer used as schools and youth centres and scout and guide buildings) (10%), and private houses (3%). 3% had their own location and 80% of the playgroups paid an average rate of rent of 3.76 pounds per session (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

iv) Time of Operation - Open during school terms only, for between two and three hours, either morning or afternoon. Not all playgroups are open every day and not every child attends every day that the centres are open (Cohen, 1988, p. 39).

v) Cost of Program - In England, the total cost was 618,000 pounds or 63.54 pounds per place per annum (Cohen, 1988, p.40)

In England in 1985, the cost of playgroups run by LAs was 47 pounds per week (Cohen, 1988, p.40)

vi) Funding - The costs to the LA varies with the level of support provided and the number of subsidized children. In England in 1984, the LAs paid for 59,726 children in playgroups. In Wales in 1985, the LAs paid for 117 children (Cohen, 1988, p.40)

In 1985, 75% of playgroups used fund-raising to help defray costs. On average, in 1985 the playgroups raised 309 pounds (Cohen, 1988, p.40)

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - The average fee charged by playgroups belonging to the PPA was 80p per session in 1985. This fee varies throughout the country and according to group costs and LA grants (Cohen, 1988, p.40)

Some groups expect parents to help at the playgroups occasionally. The Professional Playgroup Association found that about half the playgroups offered free places to some children in 1985 (Cohen, 1988, p. 39).

viii) **Regulation** - The 1948 Nurseries and Childminders Act (amended by the Health Services and Public Health Act 1968) requires that all private and voluntary playgroups be registered by their local social services department. Playgroups operated by statutory bodies are not subject to this legislation (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

Enforcement of standards varies with the particular authority and with the level of grants available for playgroups and with the training and support offered by local playgroup training officers and support staff (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under United Kingdom's "Part II Environment".

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - The Professional Playgroup Association believes that one of the strengths of playgroups is parental involvement. A majority of the playgroups in the PPA are run by a committee of parents. In addition, many playgroups require parents to work several sessions a term, and parents are involved in fund-raising (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

xi) Staff:child - The DHSS draft guidelines suggested ratio is 1:6 including parents. The Professional Playgroup Association found an average staff/helper:child ratio of 1.7 and adult:child ratio of 1.5 (Cohen, 1988, p.40).

xii) __Staff__ - Generally, one or two trained members of staff who work with the parents who rotate in helping. The Professional Playgroup Association's (PPA) 1985 Members Survey indicated that in the 2,920 playgroups which had children of Afro-Caribbean or Asian descent, 85% had no Afro-Caribbean or Asian staff and only 3% had more than 50% representation of these groups (Cohen, 1988, p.40).

xiii) __Staff Training__ - The trained members of staff have attended a Professional Playgroup Association training course The PPA offers a variety of courses ranging from one session to one class per week for a year (Cohen, 1988, p. 60).

xiv) __Group Composition__ - The DHSS draft guidance recommends that children attending playgroups should be 3-5 years old and children under 3 should be accompanied by a parent (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

xv) __Group Size__ - The DHSS draft guidance recommends that a group should not be any larger than 24 children at any given time (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

xvi) __Space__ - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: Playgroups provide care for over 13% of the 0-4 population (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

Playgroups are used by over 40% of 3- and 4-year-olds in England and Wales (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

The level of provision varies. In general, Scotland and England are better provided with playgroups than Wales and Northern Ireland. There are places available for about one-third of 3- and 4-year-olds in England and Scotland and one-fifth in Northern Ireland. However, more children than this use the playgroups because it is common that one place is shared by two or more children (Cohen, 1988, p. 39).

The level of provision of playgroups varies even within Scotland and England, the south of England having better coverage, and Scotland having a range of coverage from 10% to 60% (Cohen, 1988, p.40).

In Scotland and Wales, the rural areas seem to have better provision of playgroups than the urban areas. For Scotland, this is probably because the rural areas have very little alternative provision (Cohen, 1988, p.40).

A 1985 survey of the Professional Playgroup Association indicated that while 48% of parents of 3- and 4-year-olds had used playgroups, playgroups had only been the preferred type of provision for 38%. The suggestion is if other forms of provision were available or could be afforded parents would use them (Cohen, 1988, p.40).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: There is a lot of parental involvement in playgroups (Cohen, 1988, p. 41).

The number of playgroups established to take children with handicaps is growing (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: Only 1% of the PPA programs are available to working parents (Cohen, 1988, p. 38).

Very few children in playgroups are of ethnic minorities (Cohen, 1988, p. 39).

4. **PROGRAM NAME: Nursery schools and classes,**
LA operated
[Pre-primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children 3 and 4 years old with a few places for 2 and 5 year olds. In England, 7.5% of the total nursery school and class population in 1985 were 2 year olds (Cohen, 1988, p. 43).

In England in 1985, 34% of 3 year olds and 17% of 4 year olds were in nursery schools or classes. In Scotland in 1985, 17% of 3 year olds and 39% of 4 year olds were in nursery schools or classes. The high number of 4 year olds in nursery schools or classes in Scotland is probably caused by the low number of 4 year olds in primary school reception classes (Cohen, 1988, p. 43). The distribution of 3 and 4 year olds in Northern Ireland is more like England (Cohen, 1988, p. 43).

Osborne and Millbank found that LEA nursery schools and classes were more likely than other preschool institutions to take handicapped or "at risk" children. LEA nursery classes were also demonstrated to have slightly fewer "at risk" children (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

Osborne and Millbank also found that children of ethnic minorities were more highly represented in LEA nursery schools and classes than in independent nursery schools or playgroups (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

Provision of nursery places varies between country and within country. While over one-third of children aged 3 and 4 in Wales had a nursery place, only 13% of 3 and 4 year olds in Northern Ireland had places. In England nursery coverage ranged from 0 to 66% (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

Nursery school - The Education Act 1944 has defined a nursery school as a primary school used primarily for the purpose of providing education for children between the ages of 2 and 5. Nursery schools have their own head teacher (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

Nursery class - The Schools Regulations 1959 have defined a nursery class as a class primarily for children between the ages of 2 and 5. Nursery classes are classes in an infant or primary school for children over the age of 5 (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

i) **Philosophy**

Nursery school - The Education Act 1944 has defined a nursery school as a primary school used primarily for the purpose of providing education for children between the ages of 2 and 5 (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

ii) **Operator**

Nursery classes - Are most commonly operated by LEAs and managed by a body that includes parents (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

Nursery schools - Are most commonly operated by LEAs and have no managing body (Cohen, 1988, pp. 38, 42).

The structure of management in independent schools varies from school to school (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

iii) Location

Nursery classes and schools - Generally, nursery classes and schools have their own accommodation with an outdoor play area built specifically for their purpose (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

iv) Time of Operation

Nursery schools and classes - Generally, hours are from 9:00 a.m. to 11:30 a.m. and 1:30 p.m. to 3:30 p.m. with lunch provided for full-time children. The nursery schools and classes are open 40 weeks of the year, and very few classes and schools provide extended hours (Cohen, 1988, p. 43).

v) Cost of Program

Nursery schools and classes - The average cost per child place per week is 16.63 pounds for LEA nursery classes and 24.50 pounds for LEA nursery schools (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

vi) Funding

Nursery classes - are totally funded by the LEAs except for meals if the child stays all day (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

vii) Cost to Parent(s)

Nursery schools and classes - Usually free (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

viii) Regulation

Nursery schools and classes - The LEAs have the power to provide classes for under 5's but do not have the responsibility (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

The DES sets the standards for the premises, staffing, equipment, curriculum and ratios (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMIs) make checks on all aspects of the nursery classes and schools. However, only about one-fifth of schools are visited each year for an informal check and formal checks are even rarer. Each LEA has its own team of inspectors or advisors but not all have an advisor specifically concerned with nursery education (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under "Part II Environment".

x) Child Care/Parent Communication

Nursery schools and classes - Generally no formal requirements for parental involvement. In nursery classes that are in primary schools, a parent must be on the governing body. In many primary schools parents participate in Parent Teacher Associations which are generally very involved in fund-raising (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

xi) Staff:child

Nursery schools and classes - The DES recommends as acceptable a staff:child ratio of 1:13 (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

xii) Staff

Nursery schools and classes - By a mixture of nursery teachers and nursery assistants (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

xiii) Staff Training

Nursery schools and classes - In the past, to be a teacher required a 3-year Certificate in Education. The two main ways to become a qualified teacher in England and Wales now are by taking courses leading to a Bachelor of Education (3 or 4 years) or for university graduates to take a one-year course leading to the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in an institution of higher learning. It was not clear whether nursery teachers have to be certified teachers (Cohen, 1988, p. 62).

The training requirements for teachers in Northern Ireland is similar to England and Wales. However, Scotland's requirements differ. In order to earn a teaching qualification in Primary Education, a university graduate must take a one-year course. However, since 1984-85, non-graduates must take a four-year vocational degree in a college of education, leading to a Bachelor of Education (Cohen, 1988, p. 62).

Undergraduate and postgraduate courses throughout the UK combine a mixture of teaching practice and academic study of education (Cohen, 1988, p. 62).

Usually the assistants have a NNEB qualification (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

In-service training is generally available to the staff. Some schools also have access to specialist advice. However, access is usually inadequate (Cohen, 1988, p. 44).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space

Nursery schools and classes - Generally, all nursery schools and classes have an outdoor play area built specifically for their purpose (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: There has been a decline in the number of separate nursery schools and an increase in the number of nursery classes attached to primary schools. There is provision for about a fifth of 3- and 4-year olds in nursery schools and classes but 83% of these places are part-time (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

Provision of nursery school and classes is highest in Wales and lowest in Northern Ireland. There is a large variation in the level of provision found in England (Cohen, 1988, p. 42).

The number of children under five attending private nursery schools is increasing and was 35,000 in 1985 (Cohen, 1988, p. 42 & 43).

According to Cohen (1988), the demand for nursery education far exceeds the supply.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: The number of nursery schools has declined and the number of nursery classes in primary schools has increased. Running nursery classes in primary schools decreases costs by sharing building, staff, equipment and administration costs (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

5. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Reception Class (Provision for under-fives in primary schools)**
[Early Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 3 and 4 years. The age of children in these programs varies depending upon the part of the UK. In Scotland, children are not admitted until a term after their fifth birthday. In Northern Ireland, three year olds can attend and in England, policy varies between areas (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

In England, there are three different policies. In about 40% of the LEAs, children start school at the beginning of the year in which they become five. In about 45% of the LEAs, children are allowed to go to school in the term in which they become 5, and in about 10% of LEAs in England, children start school in the term after their fifth birthday (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - The Local Educational Authorities provide the service (Cohen, 1988, p. 46).

iii) Location - In schools (Cohen, 1988, p. 45).

iv) __Time of Operation__ - Most provision is full-time. However, children may be admitted on a part-time basis initially. Generally full-time school is open from 9:00 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. for 40 weeks of the year. Children who attend part-time usually attend for three hours in the morning or afternoon only (Cohen, 1988, p. 46).

School holidays are divided thusly: 6 weeks in the summer, 2 weeks each at Christmas and Easter and 3 half-term weeks (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

v) __Cost of Program__ - The weekly cost per child place is 14.61 pounds (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

vi) __Funding__ - The central government funds the LEAs (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

vii) __Cost to Parent(s)__ - Parents pay for meals and uniforms. In many schools, parents run fund-raising activities to buy extra equipment for the schools (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

viii) __Regulation__ - DES Circular 2/73 recommends that the LEAs ensure that "the hours of attendance, staffing, programmes, accommodation and equipment for children under-five are equivalent to those appropriate for nursery classes".

However, a study by Shields indicates that no extra provision was made by one-half of schools which admit 4-year-olds at the beginning of that year. Furthermore, no extra provision was made by two-thirds of the schools which admitted 4-year-olds at the beginning of the year in which they were five. The pupil:teacher ratio had been adjusted by only six LEAs (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under United Kingdom's "Part II Environment".

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - In the primary schools at least one parent must be included in the school's governing body (Cohen, 1988, p. 46).

xi) **Staff:Child** - The DES Circular 2/73 recommends certain ratios for reception classes. However, only six LEAs had adjusted their pupil:teacher ratio (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

xii) **Staff** - Teachers (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

xiii) Staff Training - All staff must have a teacher's certificate or a degree followed by a Diploma in Education (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - Accommodation was purpose built, but usually designed for over-fives (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

xvii) Activities - Until recently, the law required schools to provide children with a hot meal. However, since 1985, schools are only required to provide food for poor children and this meal may be cold. Supervision and a place to eat is provided by all schools during the lunch period (Moss, 1988, p. 105).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: In England, 26.5% of the under-fives in reception are aged 3-4 years. In Scotland, only 7.9% of the under-fives are aged 3-4 years. In Wales, 31% of children under-five are aged 3-4 years. In Northern Ireland, 32.1% of the under-fives are aged 3-4 years (Cohen, 1988, p. 46).

There is no evidence of an unmet demand (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: Although the primary schools are supposed to adapt the classes to reflect the younger age of the reception students, this is very often not done. For instance, in the study done by Shields, only six LEAs had adjusted their pupil:teacher ratio (Cohen, 1988, p. 47).

6. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Extended hours school** [Outside School Hours Care]

PROGRAM USER: While some centres take 3 and 4 year old children attending pre-primary education, most centres are designed for children aged 5-10 and most children attending are aged 5-7. The centres do not combine extended hours care with care for under 3 year olds (Moss, 1988, p. 111).

About 15% of centres are provided exclusively for children of single parents. The other centres are available to any child. However, many centres have long waiting lists and an informal system of priorities. These centres are generally favoured by single parents and families where both parents are at work (Moss, 1988, p. 111).

Children of single parent families and of Afro-Caribbean families have a high representation in the centres and children of Asian origin and with disabilities have a low representation. Furthermore, provision is distributed very unevenly with most centres being located in large urban areas (Moss, 1988, p. 111).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: What there is of extended hours school care in the UK is centre-based not school-based (Moss, 1988, p. 111).

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - According to Moss (1988), about 40% of centres are provided by LAs. The other centres are provided by various private groups, usually funded to some extent by LAs.

Non-school-based care - There is very little formal before- and after-school care for school-aged children. Generally, school-aged children of working parents are taken care of by relatives, friends, or one of the parents. Childminders are used in 6% of the cases (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

A voluntary organization, the National Out of School Alliance (NOOSA) was established about 15 years ago to promote care for children out of school hours and during the school holidays (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

NOOSA defines out-of-school schemes as programs "providing care for at least four and usually five days a week after school and all day during the holidays, taking full responsibility for children in their care and usually picking children up from school" (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

According to NOOSA, there are about 500 out-of-school programs, run by other agencies. The operators range from a group of mothers to the LAs (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

In addition to the formal out-of-school programs of the type promoted by NOOSA, there are informal or 'non-care' schemes. These are operated by LA departments (e.g. leisure and recreation and community services) and voluntary organizations (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

School-based care - Very few schools provide extended hours programs for school-aged children (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

Most out-of-school schemes are run individually. However, LAs have a policy of providing several schemes in their boroughs (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

iii) **Location** - Centres are located in a variety of locations including church halls, community centres and some school rooms (Moss, 1988, p. 111).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Before 8:30 a.m. and after 2:00 p.m. (Cohen, 1988, p. 52) and from 3:30 p.m. to 5:30 or 6:00 p.m. (Moss, 1988, p. 112).

v) **Cost of Program** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - No mention.

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - According to Moss (1988), some centres are free to parents. In those centres where parents are charged, the cost varies from centre to centre.

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under United Kingdom's "Part II Environment".

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:Child** - No mention.

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - No mention.

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities**

Informal outside school hours care - Some

> programs provide opportunities for play (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: NOOSA estimates that there are 500 out-of-school schemes that meet their definition of outside school hours care. These programs provide care for about 12,000 children after school and for 30,000 children during the school holidays (Cohen, 1988, p. 52).

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

D) SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Childminder**
[Other family caregiver]

PROGRAM USER: Are registered to take children from a few weeks old to five years but many also take school-aged children before and after school and during the holidays (Cohen, 1988, p. 34).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

2. **PROGRAM NAME: Primary Schooling**
[Primary Schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children aged 5-10 years (Moss, 1988, p. 103).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - No mention.

iii) **Location** - No mention.

iv) **Time of Operation** - From 9:00 a.m. to 3:30 a.m. with a 1 1/2 hour lunch. There are 13 weeks of school holidays a year. Six are in the summer, 2 are at Christmas, 2 at Easter, and 3 half-term weeks (Moss, 1988, p. 106).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Local Education Authorities.

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - None to parents.

viii) **Regulation** - No mention.

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention. For general information on child care coordination at a national and municipal level, see the section "Responsible Body" under United Kingdom's "Part II Environment".

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:Child** - 1:23 (Kurian, 1988, p. 1332).

xii) **Staff** - Teachers (Cohen, 1988, p. 61).

xiii) **Staff Training** - For information regarding training for certified teachers, see the "Staff and Training" section under "Nursery Schools and Classes".

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - No mention.

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Up until 1985, the law required that schools provide children with a hot meal. Since 1985, it is only necessary for them to provide food for poor children, and this meal can now be cold. All schools continue to provide supervision during the lunch period (Moss, 1988, p. 105).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

3. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Extended hours school** [Outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: While some centres take 3 and 4 year old children attending preprimary education, most centres are designed for children aged 5-10 and most children attending are aged 5-7. The centres do not combine extended hours care with care for under 3 year olds (Moss, 1988, p. 111).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

UNITED STATES
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I. CHILD CARE OVERVIEW

The parents of young children under six years of age (the most common compulsory school age in the United States) have a choice of four main types of care: 1) child care centres, 2) family home day care, 3) pre-kindergarten and kindergarten and 4) nursery school including Head Start. Older children may be sent to 1) family home day care, 2) school-based before- and after- school care, 3) centre-based before- and after-school care and 4) primary school.

Child care in the United States is primarily a state and municipal responsibility. There is little federal government input into the child care system and federal funding levels are relatively low. Except for some nursery schools, pre-kindergartens, kindergartens and primary schools which are administered by state and local education authorities, the remaining modes of care usually fall under the jurisdiction of a social services department; family, youth and/or children's services; health department or human services department.

Child care centres serve both younger and older school-aged children. These centres are open at least four hours a day and usually eight hours or more. They are usually covered by state and municipal regulations although in some cases (eg. school-based centres), they may be exempted.

Family home day care is available for group care of children between two years of age and compulsory school age of six (and sometimes five or seven). They are operated outside the school system and provide care for up to four hours a day.

Pre-kindergartens and kindergartens are typically school-based programs. They precede primary school and normally operate for at least half a day each day. They fall under the jurisdiction of education authorities.

Nursery schools are run essentially as early childhood education programs by private for profit and non-profit operators. Parents' fees comprise the single largest source for operating budgets. Poorer children are eligible for Head Start programs although there are spaces for only 20% of the country's disadvantaged 3-5 year olds (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987). Some respondents to the Bank Street Study indicated that "the absence of local level coordination has resulted in increased competition between Head Start programs, particularly those using space in public school, and the state prekindergarten program for children, staff and space".

School- and centre-based before- and after-school care is provided for children who attend primary or preprimary school. They differ in location. In some cases, school-based providers are exempted from regulations.

Elementary school is compulsory from ages six to sixteen in most states. It is free to parents with operating budgets coming mainly from county and other local sources and from state and federal governments.

II. CHILD CARE ENVIRONMENT

A. **CHILD CARE PHILOSOPHY:** The child care policy approach of the United States is to leave individuals to work out their own solutions. While the Federal government has largely disengaged itself from the provision of child care services, state and local governments have only partially filled the void. Much child care continues to be provided in a social welfare context but more recently, the middle class has come to view it as a more normative experience for children.

Massachusetts and Washington represent examples of more progressive states in terms of coordination mechanisms. They have requirements for parent participation in local advisory councils, needs assessments and demonstrated linkage with local public schools and the private service sector.

B. **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND:** Infant schools made their first appearance in the United States in 1830. Sponsored by charitable groups, they were established to serve the poor. Their emergence coincided with the separation of early education from religious control.

By the 1860s, day nurseries which were essentially social welfare day care centres were established to serve the children of working mothers, the so-called "day orphans", and children who were neglected.

Kindergartens stressing children's capacities to feel, think and create were transported from Germany to the United States in the late 1800s. Initially privately sponsored for middle and upper class users, social reformers saw their potential for the children of the poor. To meet the demand which could no longer be met privately, public schools entered the scene. By 1900, more than half of the kindergartens were publicly funded. Also, the involvement of the public schools gave rise to the first explicit regulations pertaining to child care.

The 1920s saw private nursery schools, many located in university research settings (and serving mainly middle class parents), emerge with a new emphasis on early childhood education, child development and parent involvement.

Through the 1930's, preschool programs expanded under the Federal government's WPA relief program which employed many teachers. These programs represented the first large scale Federal support for child care programs of any kind. These year-round all-day programs combined elements of nursery schools, kindergartens and day care centres.

In 1941, the Community Facilities Act (Lanham Act) brought more federal support to child care in response to the war effort and the large numbers of young mothers who entered the workforce. The programs established under the Act were primarily educational but contained day care elements such as child development, nutrition and parent involvement as well. This child care infrastructure was largely dismantled during the 1950's.

As the pattern of labour force participation changed in the 1960s, the need for child care increased dramatically. However, the social welfare child care model remained.

Applicants would be evaluated by a social worker to see if there was a need for day care. Through the decade, there was a gradual shift in the consciousness of the country reflected in such slogans as the War on Poverty. This era saw the rise of Head Start programs and similar initiatives in compensatory education like the Perry Preschool Project.

Through the 1970s and 1980s, new societal changes shaped the way child care was perceived. While many continued to look upon child care as another aspect of the welfare syndrome, another segment of the population began to view it as a normal, positive experience for their children.

It was during this latest period that school-aged child care emerged as a separate entity with it's own unique characteristics and needs. However, it has a history which dates back to the last century. For example, some of the early day nurseries offered after-school care to elementary school children whose parents were still working at the end of the school day. The playschool movement which grew out of the progressive education movement of the 1920s and 1930s offered after-school programming in settlement houses, community centres and schools to a few children. The Lanham Act gave rise to a very large number of school-based child care services during the second World War but most of these had disappeared by 1950. The issue came to the fore briefly in the early 70s but efforts to enact comprehensive child care legislation were vetoed by President Nixon. In the last few years, school-aged care has re-emerged on the national agenda as the numbers of working parents has increased and the latchkey phenomenon has assumed a higher profile.

C. LEGISLATION:

Birth/Adoption Leave - There is no national legislation in the United States which guarantees that leave or benefits are to be provided on the birth or adoption of a child. The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 requires employers to treat women who are recovering from childbirth or pregnancy-related illness in the same way that they treat other ill or disabled employees. Hence, pregnant women who have a disability plan through work are eligible for disability assistance. While 95% of the 384 largest American corporations now offer disability benefits for pregnancy, an estimated 60% of working women in the United States are not protected by disability insurance during pregnancy (Cooke, 1986 p. 239).

Legislation has been enacted in five states guaranteeing maternity leave and benefits. However, the authority of the states to legislate in this area has been challenged in the courts (Cooke, 1986 p. 239).

There are no nationally legislated maternity leaves or benefits, paternity leaves or benefits, or adoption leaves or benefits (Cooke, 1986, p.242).

Extended Child Care Leave - The United States does not have any national legislation regarding extended leave or benefits during leave (Cooke, 1986, p. 245).

Leave for Workers with Family Responsibilities - No mention.

D. **RESPONSIBLE BODY:** Child care in the United states is a state and local community responsibility. Group and family home day care is usually administered by social service agencies. Nursery schools, pre-kindergartens and kindergartens are administered by state or local education departments (Cooke, 1986, p. 268). Private nurseries however, fall under social services agencies.

"There is no centralized or nationally directed system of education in the United States. Rather, there are hundreds of different systems, most of them public and some of them private. The former operate under official policies and regulations and the later under licensing procedures and charters. The result is an enormously diverse system held together by a common bond of commitment to knowledge and freedom" (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,352).

Elementary education is strictly the responsibility of the states and local governments (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,356).

E. **A SUMMARY OF CHILD CARE PROGRAMS:** The provision of childcare in the United States is very fragmented and uneven. This is because the responsibility for children has been largely shifted to the states and municipalties with little national direction.

Essentially young school-aged children have three choices of licensed care 1) family home day care (regulated and sponsored), 2) day care and 3) kindergarten/Head Start. Older school-aged children can attend 1) family home day care (regulated and sponsored), 2) primary school, 3) school based before- and after-school care and 4) centre-based before- and after-school care.

F. **CHILD CARE COVERAGE:** By the early 1980s, 29% of the three year olds and 46% of the four year olds were in pre-school programs; 93% of all five year olds were in nursery school, kindergarten or first grade. Between 1970 and 1983, the number of 3 and 4 year olds in preschool doubled partly because school systems began to establish these programs. Approximately, 52% of all 3-5 year olds are in school-based child care programs (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987).

Almost half a million children are in Head Start programs operated by non-profit organizations, eg. Churches, community agencies, etc., but only 15% are school-based. About 20% operate all day. The annual cost is $1 billion. These children represent only 20% of the country's poor 3-5 year olds (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987).

III. SCHOOL AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS

A. **AGE OF COMPULSORY SCHOOLING:** Grade one at 6 or 7 years of age; Pennsylvania and Washington at 8 years of age; five or six states compel kindergarten attendance from age 5 (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1985, p. 5,360). Local school districts can deviate from these ages. For example, children living in Syracuse, New York, begin school at 5 years of age.

B. **DEFINITION OF PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER AND OLDER SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN:** The descriptions of school-aged programs are organized into two groups: child care programs for younger school-aged children and child care programs for older school-aged children.

Since the compulsory age of school attendance in the United States is usually six years old, child care programs for younger school-aged children will be defined as programs that children less than six years old are eligible to attend. Similarly, child care programs for older school-aged children will be defined as programs that children six years or older are eligible to attend.

C. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

1. PROGRAM NAME: Child Care Centre
[Nursery/preschool and school-age centre]

PROGRAM USER: From less than a year old to older school-aged children depending on locale.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No consisent philosophy; varies with program.

ii) **Operator** - Varies with program.

iii) **Location** - Varies with program.

iv) **Time of Operation** - At least four hours a day and usually eight or more.

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - Varies with program.

vi) **Funding** - Varies with program.

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Parent fees and subsidies available on an ability-to-pay basis; varies with program. (Subsidies in the United States tend to be tied to programs whereas in Canada, they are more commonly tied to the user.)

viii) **Regulation** - Usually established and administered by state authorities such as social services departments and health departments.

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - Although there has been relatively little coordination between provider and school, there have been recent efforts made in this regard. (See for example, Ziegler and Ennis, 1988.)

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:Child - Varies according to state.

xii) Staff - Varies according to state.

xiii) Staff Training - Varies according to state.

xiv) Group Composition - Varies according to state.

xv) Group Size - Varies according to state.

xvi) Space - Varies according to state.

xvii) Activities - Varies according to state.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: - Varies according to state.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: - Varies according to state.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: - Varies according to state.

2. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Family Home Day Care**
Regulated Care
Sponsored Care
[Other Family Care]

PROGRAM USER: Regulated Care - all children; regulated care accounted for about 6% of all family home day care (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - Usually subsidized children; sponsored care accounted for about 2% of all family home day care.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Regulated Care - Individuals operating independently in the community (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - Individual operating as part of a child care system or under an umbrella agency (Abt Associates, 1981).

iii) **Location** - Regulated Care - in the homes of caregivers (Abt Associates, 1981)

Sponsored Care - in the homes of caregivers (Abt Associates, 1981).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Regulated Care - any part of the 24-hour day (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - any part of the 24-hour day (Abt Associates, 1981).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - Regulated Care - in 1980, the weekly fee was $26.36 per child (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - in 1980, the weekly fee was $26.36 per child (Abt Associates, 1981).

vi) **Funding** - Regulated Care - no information (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - subsidies through Title XX of the Social Security Act and the USDA Child Care Food Program (Abt Associates, 1981) .

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Regulated Care - most parents pay by the hour and less/hour for more hours of care (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - 85%-90% of the these spaces are subsidized (Abt Associates, 1981).

viii) **Regulation** - Regulated Care - required to meet state and local requirements; if Federally subsidized children are served, then Federal standards must also be met. Standards differ from state to state but all cover group composition, health and safety, food and nutrition and staff qualifications. Most states license homes through designated Government departments as a regulatory mechanism. Other states regulate through registrations which are largely voluntary (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - required to meet state and local requirements; if Federally subsidized children are served, then Federal standards must also be met. Standards differ from state to state but all cover group composition, health and safety, food and nutrition and staff qualifications. Most states license homes through designated Government departments as a regulatory mechanism. Other states regulate through registrations which are largely voluntary (Abt Associates, 1981).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - Regulated Care- Unusually high level of interaction; both parties are mutually interested in a relationship focussed on the child but including a friendship between the adults (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - Unusually high level of interaction; both parties are mutually interested in a relationship focussed on the child but including a friendship between the adults (Abt Associates, 1981).

xi) Staff:Child - Regulated Care - Average of 4 children per home; usually the allowable maximum is 6 children (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - Average of 4 children per home;

usually the allowable maximum is 6 children (Abt Associates, 1981).

xii) **Staff** - Regulated Care - often women in their 30s-50s who care for friends' and neighbors' children (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - often women in their 30s-50s who care for friends' and neighbors' children (Abt Associates, 1981).

xiii) **Staff Training** - Regulated Care - no minimum educational qualifications; less than one-third of providers have had inservice of some kind (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - no minimum educational qualifications; less than one-third of providers have had inservice of some kind (Abt Associates, 1981).

xiv) **Group Composition** - Regulated Care - usually more infants than toddlers (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - Usually less than half are toddlers; preschoolers about 25% and the rest split between infants and school-aged children (Abt Associates, 1981).

xv) **Group Size** - Regulated Care - average of 4 children per home; usually the allowable maximum is 6 children (Abt Associates, 1981).
Sponsored Care - average of 4 children per home;

usually the allowable maximum is 6 children (Abt Associates, 1981).

xvi) __Space__ - Regulated Care - minimum usually set by state statute (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - minimum usually set by state statute (Abt Associates, 1981).

xvii) __Activities__ - Regulated Care - educational environment stressed (13% of the time spent in teaching); formal setting (Abt Associates, 1981).

Sponsored Care - educational environment stressed (17% of the time spent in teaching); more formal setting than regulated care. Greater emphasis on language/information, structured fine motor activities such as puzzles, music/dance and gross motor activity; less TV viewing (Abt Associates, 1981).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: - No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: - no mention.

3. **PROGRAM NAME: Prekindergarten and Kindergarten**
[Early primary schooling and Kindergarten]

PROGRAM USER: Normally, 3 to 5 year olds.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - No mention.

ii) **Operator** - Local school districts.

iii) **Location** - Mostly schools but city park buildings, hospitals, social services centres and community buildings account for 14% of the sites (Mitchell, 1988).

iv) **Time of Operation** - Programs operate for at least half a day per day (Moss, 1988).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - Since 1986, the States have assumed a greater share of the costs although Federal monies are still received for Prekindergarten Programs. Monies are distributed to public schools who in turn, may subcontract to outside agencies for services. The largest state programs are in Texas (funding $64.5 million), California (funding $35.5 million) and New York (funding $27 million). The smallest state programs are in Ohio (funding $83 thousand) and Delaware (funding $189 thousand) (Day, 1988).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - No mention.

viii) **Regulation** - Public school programs are often exempt from licensing procedures but are still subject to regulatory standards. It is unclear how their compliance to regulatory standards is monitored when licensing is not mandatory.

At least one-quarter of Head Start, Chapter I and locally funded prekindergarten programs are licensed while more than three-quarters of subsidized and parent fee child care programs are licensed. About one-quarter of state funded prekindergarten and special education programs reported that they were exempt from licensing but had to meet State Education Department requirements (Mitchell, 1988b).

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - School superintendents have noted that it is easier to identify children with learning difficulties at a very early stage and that generally, children entering kindergarten are better prepared (Mitchell, 1988b).

For information about integration of day care, kindergarten, and primary school, see the section "Child Care/School Coordination" under the program "Child Care Centre".

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Staff:Child** - Ratios for prekindergarten vary widely from state to state. The range is from 6:1 in Washington to 25:1 in New Jersey; the average is approximately 10:1 which is the recommended ratio (Mitchell, 1988b).

xii) **Staff** - Classroom teachers and paraprofessionals.

xiii) **Staff Training** - About half the states require cargivers to have ECE training or certification. Almost three-quarters require a Bachelor's degree and experience working with children. Paraprofessionals require a High School Diploma (Day, 1988; Marx and Seligson, 1988 and Mitchell, 1988b).

xiv) **Group Composition** - No mention.

xv) **Group Size** - For 4 year olds, the recommended group size is not more than twenty children (Mitchell, 1988b)

xvi) **Space** - No mention.

xvii) **Activities** - Early childhood curriculum models fall along a continuum from those which are highly structured, teacher-directed and cognitively oriented to open-structure models involving teacher- and child-initiated activities as well as teacher structured individualized learning activities designed to achieve a balance of cognitive, social, emotional and physical goals to unstructured, child-centred and socially/emotionally focussed models (Day, 1988).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: School superintendents have noted that it is easier to identify children with learning difficulties at a very early stage and that generally, children entering kindergarten are better prepared (Mitchell, 1988b).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: No mention.

4. **PROGRAM NAME: Nursery school**
1) private
2) public (Head Start)
[Part-time child care]

PROGRAM USER: private - preschoolers through younger school-aged children
public - preschoolers through younger school-aged children.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTIOIN:

i) Program Philosophy - private - For young children, the program is seen in the context of early childhood education.

public - Head Start programs are compensatory interventions intended to assist disadvantaged children make a good start in school and perform well when they get there.

ii) Operator - private - Various for-profit and non-profit operators.

public - non-profit community groups and agencies.

iii) Location - Various locations.

iv) Time of Operation - At least two hours a day and often up to eight hours a day.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - private - Parent fees.

public - Contributions from three levels of government (federal, state and local).

vii) Cost to Parents - private - No mention.
public - None or minimal.

viii) Regulation - private - No mention.

public - Some are subject to licensing procedures and most to regulatory standards. At least one-quarter of Head Start programs are licensed (Mitchell, 1988b).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - private - Parents occasionally serve on advisory boards and committees but generally do not have significant involvement with the providers.

public - Parents serve on advisory boards and as employees and volunteers; this kind of involvement is often explicitly designed into Head Start programs. Many offer parent-teacher conferences (Mitchell, 1988b).

xi) Staff:Child - No mention.

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - private - Mostly children from

middle class families.
public - Mostly at-risk children from low income families (ASCD ECE Policy Panel, 1988).

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - No mention.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: - private - No mention.

public - Parent involvement in programs for the educational and parenting considerations but also, to provide employment for low income families.

Recent research on Head Start by the Consortium for Longitudinal Studies at Cornell University indicates that there are lasting positive effects for children attributable to their involvement in such programs, eg. fewer behavioral problems, higher high school completion rate, etc. (eg. Woodhead, 1985).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: - private - No mention.

public - Because these programs attract predominantly low income, at-risk children, many become essentially segregated populations (ASCD ECE

Policy Panel, 1988).

D. SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR OLDER CHILDREN

1. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Family Home Day Care**
   1) Regulated Care
   2) Sponsored Care
   [Other Family Care]

PROGRAM USER: Regulated Care - all children; regulated care accounts for about 6% of all family home day care (Abt Associates, 1981)

Sponsored Care - Usually subsidized children; sponsored care accounts for about 2% of all family home day care. Almost all family home day care is unregulated and informal (Abt Associates, 1981)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION: As described in "SCHOOL-AGED CHILD CARE PROGRAMS FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN".

2. **PROGRAM NAME: School-based before- and after-school care [School-based outside school hours care]**

PROGRAM USER: Usually children 5 years and older.

i) Program Philosophy - Although there is no explicit program philosophy given for this type of care, they implicitly understood philosophy is to provide quality group care for children who would otherwise be left unattended (eg. Ziegler and Ennis, 1988).

ii) Operator - Local school districts and also outside agencies which may contract for services in schools.

iii) Location - School sites including portable classrooms and facilities specifically designed as child care centres.

iv) Time of Operation - Most are operated before and after school and sometimes during lunch hour.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Varies but state governments provide a large share of the funding for school-aged care often matched by municipal monies. Parent fees are usually based on some measure of their ability-to-pay. The use of Federal funds varies from being used as seed money to improving facilities.

School-aged child care is part of some states' welfare reform initiatives (SACC Project, 1989).

vii) **Cost to Parent(s)** - Varies by type of provider; eg. municipalities/recreation programs charge the lowest unsubsidized fees ($19.06/5 after-school program days), church ($24.16), public schools ($24.91), non-profit child care ($25.25), youth agencies ($27.42) and for profit child care ($29.13) (SACC Project, 1989).

viii) **Regulation** - All states have a regulatory agency, usually a social services department; family, youth and/or childrens' services; Health Department or Human Services Department. Generally speaking, a program operated by an agency other than the school on a school site will be under the jurisdiction of the same state agency which regulates other child care programs. The specificity of the regulations varies from state to state with some making no special mention of school-aged children and others providing comprehensive and explicit details. When programs are school-based, states may offer exemptions from regulatory requirements or place them under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education or other school body.

There are other exemptions as well including drop-ins, periodically offered programs, child care which is part of a child development laboratory and programs which operate a minimal number of hours per week. When a school contracts with an outside agency to provide service, the school may impose additional regulations above and beyond the state's minimum requirements.

Federal regulations have been eliminated (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - Although the link between schools and child care providers would seem to be a logical one (Howes, Olenick and Der-Kuireghian, 1987), it is not clear that the link is made because it has positive effects for the children or because the parents prefer it (Rubin and Medrich, 1979 and Goldfine and Wagner, 1987).

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - Parent involvement is seen as an important factor in school programs and by extension, child care programs which are school-based. This is particularly true of Head Start programs.

xi) Child:Staff - Ratios vary widely from state to state. The range for the youngest children is 10:1 to 25:1; for children 6 years and older the range is 10:1 to 30:1. The ratios of the older children are always the same as or larger than the ratios for younger children. Aides are usually excluded from the ratio (SACC, 1989).

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - No mention.

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No group should be larger than 30 children (5 to 9 year olds) and not larger than 40 children (10 to 14 year olds).

xvi) **Space** - Separate areas should be available for children beyond the second grade; children in K-1 can be part of a preschool group. A quiet study area should be set aside for those who wish to do homework or read. Appropriate furniture, equipment and materials are available. There should be one flush toilet and one sanitary wash basin per 15 children. There should be access to open spaces for running and games.

xvii) **Activities** - Good programs provide activities which recognize the development and educational needs of school-aged children who require before and after school care. Quiet activities such as but not limited to puzzles, small games, reading books and simple art and opportunities to do homework should be available on a free choice basis to children. Children who have been in school all day should have time for relaxation and recreation immediately upon arrival to the care site. There should also, be opportunities to develop art, music and athletic talents. Special field trips (eg. local library) should be scheduled. The child care program should be flexible enough to allow children to participate in after-school activities.

PROGRAM COVERAGE: No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: Public schools tend to be more appropriate for children because they prohibit corporal punishment, provide more qualified staff on site and offer back-up and related resources (SACC Project, 1989).

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES:

Few states have revised their child care regulations to reflect the unique character of school-aged care. As a consequence, many states' regulations do not distinguish between the needs of infants and toddlers from school-aged children resulting in inappropriate staffing, facilities and programming.

Lack of government funding to develop more school-aged programs is another major problem, particularly to assist low income families. The lack of space in many elementary schools is also a problem in some jurisdictions as in public awareness of the importance of school-aged care (SACC Project, 1989).

Competition between for profit operators and schools which are non-profit providers is a problem. For profit operators often view schools as unfair competition.

3. **PROGRAM NAME: Centre-based before and after school care**
[Centre-based outside school hours care]

PROGRAM USER: Usually children 5 years and older who attend pre-primary or primary school; actual age ranges vary from state to state (School-Age Child Care Project, 1989).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) Program Philosophy - No mention.

ii) Operator - Non-profit and for profit child care organizations, youth agencies, churches and municipal/recreation programs (SACC Project, 1989).

iii) Location - Various.

iv) Time of Operation - Most are operated before and after school and sometimes during lunch hour.

v) Program Delivery Cost - No mention.

vi) Funding - Varies but state governments provide a large share of the funding for school-aged care often matched by municipal monies. Parent fees are usually based on some measure of their ability-to-pay.

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - See "Cost to Parent(s)" under the program "School-based before- and after-school care."

viii) **Regulation** - See "Regulation" under the program "School-based before- and after-school care."

ix) **Child Care/School Coordination** - No mention.

x) **Child Care/Parent Communication** - No mention.

xi) **Child:Staff** - Ratios vary widely from state to state. The range for the youngest children is 10:1 to 25:1; for children 6 years and older the range is 10:1 to 30:1. The ratios of the older children are always the same as or larger than the ratios for younger children. An aide is often included in the ratio (SACC, 1989).

xii) **Staff** - No mention.

xiii) **Staff Training** - No mention.

xiv) **Group Composition** - Although there is the danger of creating segregated groups of children in certain types of care as a result of funding regulations, location, care philosophy, targeting of low income groups etc., jurisdictions such as California attempt to ensure a social-class mix of children in government funded programs (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987).

xv) **Group Size** - No group should be larger than 30 children (5 to 9 year olds) and not larger than 40 children (10 to 14 year olds).

xvi) **Space** - See "Space" under the program "School-based before- and after-school care".

xvii) **Activities** - See "Activities" under the program "School-based before- and after-school care".

PROGRAM COVERAGE: - No mention.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: - See "STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES" under the program "School-based before- and after-school care".

4. **PROGRAM NAME:** **Elementary school**
[Primary schooling]

PROGRAM USER: Children of compulsory school age. Usually six years old and older (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,352).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION:

i) **Program Philosophy** - There is no centralized or nationally directed system of education in the United States. Thus, the result is an enormously diverse system governed by state legislatures.

ii) **Operator** - Almost all operators are local school boards.

iii) **Location** - Schools.

iv) **Time of Operation** - Usually 8:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. five days per week. The school year begins in September and ends in approximately the second week of June (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,352).

v) **Program Delivery Cost** - No mention.

vi) **Funding** - In 1982, the United States spent 7% of its GNP, or $215 billion on education (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,352).

Funds for education come principally from taxes collected by federal, state, and local governments (Kurian, 1988, p. 1375).

vii) Cost to Parent(s) - None to parents.

viii) Regulation - Accredited agencies examine school curricula, library resources, qualifications of the teaching staff, and the educational facilities themselves to determine whether or not they are of high enough standard to warrant accreditation of the institution (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,355).

Despite the establishment of minimum standards, there are inequalities in educational opportunities among school districts (Kurian, 1988, p. 1374).

ix) Child Care/School Coordination - No mention.

x) Child Care/Parent Communication - No mention.

xi) Staff:Child - 1:19 (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,344).

xii) Staff - No mention.

xiii) Staff Training - Teachers are prepared through liberal arts undergraduate programs normally leading to a bachelor's degree. All will have some supervised student teaching experience as part of their preparation (Huson and Postlethwaite, 1985, p 5364).

xiv) Group Composition - No mention.

xv) Group Size - No mention.

xvi) Space - No mention.

xvii) Activities - Elementary pupils usually follow a single curriculum, the chief aim of which is general education. In some schools, the subject matter is grouped into broad areas such as language arts or social studies. In other schools, it is more restricted. The study of language arts consumes approximately one-half the teaching day in a typical primary school. Social studies are usually introduced only after the third grade. The teaching of arithmetic is more standardized than any other area in the primary school curriculum. Subjects such as art or music may be taught by all teachers as an integrated subject or by a specialist (Kurian, 1988, p. 1,362).

PROGRAM COVERAGE: - Universal for all intents and purposes; 90% are in public school systems, 10% in private schools.

PROGRAM DEFINITION OF QUALITY: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM STRENGTHS: - No mention.

STATED PROGRAM WEAKNESSES: - No mention.

PART II

A Discussion of Selected Topics

REGULATION AND QUALITY

The following discussion of child care regulation will focus on the Canadian situation and to a lesser degree the status of regulation in the United States. The literature reviewed on other countries turned up very little except the occasional reference to what bodies are responsible for regulation. However, regulations in most countries serve the same purpose, namely, to establish standards of care viz a viz quality.

Regulation in Canada contributes to the establishment of minimum standards of care for children. Essentially, it is a provincially mandated set of rules whose main purpose is quality control. These standards usually include minimally acceptable specifications regarding staff:child ratios, group sizes, staff qualifications, site characteristics, health, safety and nutritional requirements and parental roles. As minimum standards, they describe the most basic levels of acceptable care and are no guarantee of higher quality. To achieve high quality care, the regulations must be exceeded particulary in the areas of staff ratios, group size and caregiver qualifications. However, quality considerations must be traded off against cost considerations. Invariably, higher quality care has an economic cost. For example, in Finland, family child care providers who attend additional training courses are paid at a higher rate but are able to provide a higher quality child care service (National Board of Social Welfare, 1986, p. 5). Furthermore, meeting child care standards is only one of several requirements which must be met before caregivers are granted licenses. Other requirements include municipal zoning by-laws, building, fire, safety, health and sanitation codes. All contribute to the provision of a minimal level of care for children.

In Canada, the monitoring and enforcement of standards usually falls under the same provincial body that issues licenses to caregivers although the actual procedures may vary from one province to the next. For example, monitoring visits may be unannounced spot checks of centres or they may be pre-arranged long in advance of the actual visit. In addition, it should be noted that regulation, by-laws and codes are not the only ways by which quality control is maintained. Non-regulatory efforts aimed at quality control include 1) staff development and training, 2) evaluation, 3) consultation, 4) parent education, 5) accreditation, 6) community education and 7) information and resources (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1987-88).

Ideally, standards would be based on empirical evidence provided by research. Unfortunately, it would appear that this would be more possible for young children than school-aged children for whom considerably less research is available. Quality issues for younger children have been well documented so that program and policy makers have a good understanding of what constitutes quality care for these children and more importantly, what specific characteristics contribute most to good care. This information permits the formulation of sound, empirically based child care regulations for young children. However, for older children for whom there is so little research available, there are at best only general guidelines regarding the characteristics of what constitutes good quality care for them. Such guidelines are usually inadequate for the task of defining the specific characteristics (eg. staff:child ratio) needed for high quality school-aged child care. For example, Lero (1985) identifies six rather general factors associated with quality care:

1) A public that is informed about child care;
2) Active professional organizations;
3) Support services and special resources that are accessible to child care providers;
4) Funding policy;
5) The availability and affordability of child care

alternatives; and

6) The responsiveness of the child care provider to the needs its community (eg. rural, ethnic and socio-economic groups).

These are shown in Figure 1.

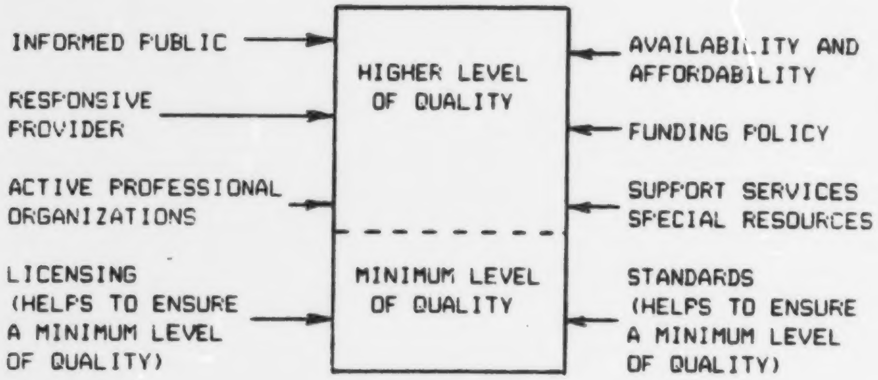
INFORMED PUBLIC
RESPONSIVE PROVIDER
ACTIVE PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
LICENSING (HELPS TO ENSURE A MINIMUM LEVEL OF QUALITY)
HIGHER LEVEL OF QUALITY
MINIMUM LEVEL OF QUALITY
AVAILABILITY AND AFFORDABILITY
FUNDING POLICY
SUPPORT SERVICES SPECIAL RESOURCES
STANDARDS (HELPS TO ENSURE A MINIMUM LEVEL OF QUALITY)

FIG. 1--COMPONENTS OF QUALITY CHILD CARE

There can be little question that these factors contribute to the provision of high quality care for children of all ages. For example, making information about quality care known to the public can improve the quality of care by increasing the demand for it as informed consumers. Conversely, the demand for sub-standard care would be reduced. However, these six factors do not address the specific characteristics which must be defined for high quality school-aged care.

The need for an informed consumer is linked closely to the availability and affordability of the types of care provided in the child care marketplace. If only poor quality care is available or affordable, even the best informed parent would be forced to place their child in a sub-standard care situation.
The provision of high quality care can be encouraged by various other means. One mechanism by which control can be exerted over program quality is through government funding policies. For example, funding bodies can affect the quality of care by not subsidizing or sponsoring types of programs which they know to be poor.

Active professional organizations, support services and special resources improve the quality of care by offering providers access to professional and program development opportunities. Clearly, the better trained the staff and the greater their access to other related support services and resources, the better will be the overall level of care which can be provided to children.

A child care provider which is responsive to its users (children and parents) is obviously meeting the particular needs of its community. Meeting needs directly is tantamount to providing a quality service.

The matter of quality has been approached in another way in the United States where the trend is toward registration (as opposed to regulation). The belief is that registration offers a less threatening or non-punitive way of ensuring the quality of programs; that through the registration process, the standards of care can be made known to providers and that support services and special resources can be and are made available to registrants. However, the literature turns up no comparisons of registration versus regulation as quality control measures. Furthermore, the move towards registration may be part of a larger trend toward de-regulating other large-scale services (eg. airlines) in the United States and may not be based on theoretical or empirical grounds (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987).

Because the U.S. Federal government has largely removed itself from providing any direction in the child care field, the responsibility for establishing and maintaining standards of care has fallen to the states and local levels of government. The result is a child care system which is very fragmented and uneven throughout the country. Regulations vary significantly in terms of their coverage, their implementation, their rigor, how they are monitored, penalties, connections to licensing, responsible agencies, exemptions, and so on. To compensate, child care advocates have established information and referral services in the United States. Similarly, parents have begun to set up information networks to help them become informed and wise child care consumers.

ECONOMIC CONSIDERATIONS IN THE CHOICE OF CARE

A great many factors enter into the decisions made by parents regarding child care selections. The literature review includes a number of North American items where this question is addressed. However, little information emerges for the other eleven countries included in this report. Therefore, the present discussion focuses mainly on Canada and the United States. It should be noted that some American data may not be applicable to other countries because of unique characteristics relating to the former, eg. funding models, urban crime, etc.

Some of the key factors which emerge from surveys of parents as consumers are convenience (eg. proximity, availability of transportation, and hours of operation), the reputation and identity of the caregiver (eg. Church, school, social welfare, Head Start), the program, location (eg. safety of the neighbourhood), availability of space and of course cost. Other factors are related more to the parents themselves but they also determine choice of care. Some of the more obvious characteristics are income level (where high income families tend to favour centres and babysitters over relatives, [Lehrer, 1983]; or low income families who send their children to Head Start programs, [ASCD ECE Policy Panel, 1988]); residential location (eg. rural Virginia families prefer care by mothers, urban families prefer care by relatives and suburban families prefer school-based care, [Fuqua and Labensohn, 1983]; or suburban upper middle class parents who prefer caregivers to come to their homes and centers are least used, [Davis and Solomon, 1980]); age of the children (where parents prefer centres to relatives for their three to six year old children and relatives or babysitters for their older school-aged children, [Lehrer, 1983]); the number of children requiring care (eg. a family requiring care for two or three children may find it financially easier to pay one babysitter than for two or three spaces in a centre); the ethnicity of the parents (eg. first generation Polish and Italian parents prefer centres run by the Catholic Church or the Welfare Department to the schools or profit oriented operators, [Fandetti, 1976]); and gender (eg. boys are more likely to be placed in centres after school than girls who are more often left unattended, [Powell and Widdows, 1987]).

In addition to the individual characteristics listed above, there is another more general variable which affects child care decisions. The prosperity of a country influences families in terms of their economic decisions. For example, when a country is experiencing an economic recession with high unemployment and depressed salaries, there are negative externalities experienced by the tertiary service sector of the economy as well, eg. competition for fewer spaces and reduced ability to pay.

Clearly, many considerations are factored into the child care selection decision making process. Although some investigators have noted that there is no best child care arrangement for all parents, cost usually emerges as a key variable in the equation (eg. Pence and Goelman, 1987), at least in western free economies. The importance of the economic factor in the decision to purchase a service tends to be related to the particular political economic system of a country. This is evident from the information presented in Part I where for example, financial considerations are important to parents in Canada, the United States, and to a lesser extent the Federal Republic of Germany. In these countries, there are often costs associated with care as well as a range of options with various costs from which to choose. The German Democratic Republic is one example, where cost factors are minimized because of the high level of government subsidization for all child-related programs.

Lero (1985) has completed the most extensive survey of how Canadian families make child care choices. While affordability/cost emerged as a consideration, Lero found that parents made their selections based on program characteristics such as reliability, individual attention to children and convenience. In fact, cost emerged as a more important factor in parents' decisions to not select certain types of care.

While most Canadian localities are experiencing shortages in spaces, there is a fairly wide range of kinds of care available, particularly in the urban centres. Many of these are subsidized with fees tied to parents' ability to pay. The tendency seems to be for low income parents who qualify for subsidies and high income earners who can afford the fees to opt for licensed care. Also, high income earners prefer to have caregivers come to their homes. Lower middle and middle income earners tend to rely on the informal care market (Cooke, 1986). Thus, there appears to be a sort of dividing of the population along economic lines related to the costs of various forms of care.

In the United States, most government contributions are directed at the disadvantaged segments of society, eg. the working poor, those on welfare and single parents. The monies are used to subsidize care for families who otherwise could not afford quality care for their children. It should be noted that in the United States, subsidies are tied to programs and not users as they are in Canada. Federal contributions are provided primarily as tax credits and therefore do not necessarily help no income and low income families directly. In fact, this system ultimately provides assistance and more choices for middle and upper income groups (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987). In addition, the strong move towards deregulation and privatization makes the question of affordability even more critical. This type of funding strategy and overall policy results in a situation where there is real potential for segregation based on who can afford the various types of care. Generally, those who can afford to, send their children to preschool programs. Those who cannot afford the fees may be enrolled in a Head Start program (although spaces are limited).

A similar situation can be found in the United Kingdom where usage patterns tend to be stratified by the ability to pay for services. Cooke (1986) notes, "the great majority of care arrangements in the United Kingdom are made primarily by parents and paid for by them, unassisted by government" (p. 267). Children who attend private day nurseries are generally from the higher income homes while children in local authority day nurseries are children who are often considered to be in need of extra assistance because of their parents' circumstances. There is a very real potential here for segregated child care.

This is not to say that in countries which offer greater access to care, the economic factor is totally absent nor does it imply that the principle of wider access is always well implemented. In Italy for instance, where most care options are subsidized by government, there are private kindergartens which are expensive and therefore beyond the reach of most parents. Also, in Denmark, the kindergarten program is largely subsidized by the government but the number of spaces is limited making affordability less of a problem than availability. In the German Democratic Republic, in addition to the child care options, there are hundreds of other organized activities for children of all ages, many funded and operated by public agencies with low or no user fees. These programs offer parents a healthy and inexpensive child care alternative to parents.

Economic considerations are obviously important but their importance varies from one country to the next, from one type of care to the next, from one family to the next. In some cases, the high level of subsidization renders the question academic. In other cases, the shortage of spaces makes the matter of availability more important than cost. And finally, each family has its own unique set of circumstances and priorities regarding child care. Cost plays a different role in each situation.

ADAPTABILITY OF INTERNATIONAL CHILD CARE MODELS

Many Canadians are interested in increasing the availability, accessibility, and quality of child care programs in Canada. For this reason, Canadian policy analysts are interested to learn what child care programs are available elsewhere, and to consider which of these effective child care programs could be transported successfully to Canada.

An examination of the material collected in Part I of this report indicates that the same program types tend to emerge when countries develop programs to meet their child care needs. Thus, while each country may produce a different variation on a program type, and while each country may combine various program types in slightly different ways, essentially the program types are drawn from a common set.

Moss (1988) developed a typology of child care programs. The types he defined are: nurseries; pre-school and school-age centres; organized other family care; other family caregivers; playcentres; pre-primary schooling; kindergartens; early primary schooling; and outside school hours care, school-based and centre-based. The terms have been defined in the Introduction to Part I. This typology enabled us to make cross-cultural comparisons.

A review of our Canadian child care program "portfolio" indicates that among the programs available are nurseries, organized other family care, other family caregivers, playcentres, preprimary schooling, kindergarten, early primary schooling, and outside school hours care, school-based and centre-based. If we already have the same basic programs that are offered in many of the other twelve countries, what then do we consider when addressing the issue of adaptability?

The key question then becomes what program characteristics and combinations might we borrow and/or modify that could both transplant well and improve our child care delivery. Child care delivery in this sense includes both the quality of the care delivered and the comprehensiveness of the child care system.

In the discussion that follows, some characteristics of the child care programs of other countries will be examined. Canadian programs may already share some of these characteristics. Nonetheless, it may be of interest to examine these programs further.

In the process, several combinations of programs that are well coordinated to deliver child care will be reviewed. Finally, areas for further research will be suggested.

In order to compare the many different programs encountered in this literature review, Moss's typology will be used. For the purpose of our discussion, 'organized other family care' and 'other family caregiver' will be combined into the category 'family home child care'. The following program types will be discussed: family home child care; kindergarten; preprimary schooling; and outside school hours care.

Many program characteristics vary significantly from one child care program to the next. The following discussion of each program type will consider some of the ways the characteristics vary and the questions that may emerge from these variations: operator, location, time of operation, method of funding program, staff training and support, regulating mechanisms, and coordination mechanisms.

FAMILY HOME CHILD CARE

In addition to Canada, family home child care is found in Sweden, Denmark, Norway, France, Finland, Federal Republic of Germany, the United States and the United Kingdom. It is not found in Italy, and sources do not specify whether or not it is provided in Czechoslovakia and the German Democratic Republic. In general, in countries where kindergarten or preprimary schooling is used extensively, and where the hours of operation of these programs are similar to standard work hours or where outside school hours care is extensive, there seems to be no family home child care.

Operator

Family home child care is operated by the local authorities in Sweden, Denmark, and Finland; it is provided by public and private operators in Federal Republic of Germany, the United States, the United Kingdom, and Norway. Norway and the United States offer very decentralized planning, establishment, and operation of day care. How has this decentralization benefited or been a disservice to care? How centralized is the family home child care of the other countries? Has this centralization or decentralization been beneficial or detrimental to child care delivery?

Location

In Sweden, family home child care is used more in sparsely populated areas than in cities. It would be of interest to know whether this is planned or emergent - if planned, why was it planned this way, and if emergent, were there any events or particular needs that prompted the care to develop in this way.

Time of Operation

Generally speaking, family home day care has been applauded for its flexibility in terms of opening hours. Perhaps this program may be useful in meeting the needs of Canadians who require childcare for odd hours or shiftwork.

Staff Training and Support

In Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, many of the local authorities provide specialized training for their childminders. This training is short, usually lasting several weeks, and ongoing. The organization and the content of this training may be worth examining.

In Sweden, educational consultants are employed to work with the day care services. In Canada, Ontario for example, employs child care consultants as do local municipal governments and boards of education. In addition, all of the recognized caregivers are unionized and earn average wages. While these employment practices have lowered staff turnover, have they significantly improved the quality of family home day care? In Sweden, a program called "open preschool" has been establised to offset the problems of isolation and the lack of stimulation experienced by family day care providers. A similar program exists in Britain. In Toronto, Canada, parenting and resource centres have been established to support parents and family day care providers.

Funding

It has been suggested that one of the reasons that governments in Sweden and Denmark promote family home child care is because it is cheaper. Lower capital costs mean lower subsidies paid out by the government.

Regulation

Practically no information was found about regulation of family child care. It may be useful to know more about the standards set by various countries and the regulating mechanisms they employ to ensure that these standards are maintained. Since family home child care is strongly established in Sweden and Denmark, it would be useful to know more about its regulation there.

No information is available on Sweden's regulating of staff:child ratio or group size. Have standards been established? Are the standards regulated? In Denmark, where a formalized family child care program has been in operation since 1964, providers are carefully screened, licensed, and closely supervised by local township officials. In Denmark, licensed family day care provides 60% of the care for children less than two years. However, no data was found on the coverage for school-aged children. The broad coverage for infants indicates the system is working. Is this true? If so, what aspects contribute to its success?

Kindergarten

It should be noted that although Moss's typology serves well in most cases, some difficulties arise when a cross-cultural perspective is taken. For example, what Moss refers to as 'kindergarten' for most European programs are more commonly know as 'nursery schools' in North America. This distinction is an important one for the following discussion.

In addition to Canada, kindergarten (usually for 3 to 5 or 6 year olds) is provided in Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Kindergarten is not offered in Italy and not mentioned in the literature on Czechoslovakia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Generally, in countries where there is very little or no kindergarten, preprimary schooling is well-developed and usually involves longer school days or extensive outside school hours care. Typically, the younger school-aged child attends a program offered by an educational authority for part of the day and then moves to a program operated by a child care authority for the rest of the day.

Location

In Sweden, kindergarten is generally located in residential areas to increase family involvement in the centre and in the community. In addition, some daghem and recreation centres are combined to provide outside school hours care. This combination has been endorsed as a good means of improving the suitability of activities for older school-aged children attending the outside school hours programs. Similar programs have been adapted successfully in Canada but relatively little is known about the Swedish experience.

Time of Operation

In Sweden, many kindergartens are open from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. These longer hours provide improved accessibility of care for many parents who work early or late day shifts. In addition, in Sweden other kindergartens are provided part-time, ie. 15 hours per week or three hours per day. The purpose of this part-time care is to provide a group care experience for children who receive primary care in a home environment. Finally, Sweden provides some public day care programs two days per week in sparsely populated areas, and itinerant preschool teachers are available several days or weeks per month.

In France, kindergartens that offer part-time care are available to meet the needs of mothers who work part-time or parents who are employed on holidays. The availability of kindergarten care on Saturdays and Sundays and holidays benefits many parents.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, only about 12% of the children attend kindergartens that run from 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. or from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. Most of the children attend part-time, since the Federal Republic of Germany does not have adequate coverage for kindergarten. The same situation exists in the United Kingdom.

Staff Training and Support

In Sweden, in addition to preschool teachers who work in the kindergartens, there are nursery nurses. These assistants have one or two years of training in high school. If studies indicating area of study is more important in the quality of the caregiver than length of study, would it be worth developing a short specialized course for Canadian secondary school students? The local authorities in Sweden and Denmark also provide ongoing staff training courses. What is the content of these courses? Have these courses contributed significantly to child care quality?

Funding

In Sweden, Denmark, and Finland, parents pay fees for kindergarten programs according to their income. In Sweden, this means paying a fee according to a sliding income scale. What does it mean in Denmark and Finland? Furthermore, how is the parental fee determined in Norway? In the United States, United Kingdom, and in Canada, where child care is provided free only as a social welfare provision, families pay full-fees for kindergarten programs unless the family obtains a full- or partial-subsidy. Precisely, how do other countries implement fees for child care when the child care is offered as a public service?

In Norway, they have implemented a flexible system for the use of receipts and child care. A specific deduction is provided for child care with no receipts. A larger deduction is provided with for persons who provide receipts.

Coordinating Mechanisms

In Sweden, one of a child's parents starts kindergarten when the child does. The purpose is two-fold: to develop communication between the centre and the family, and to improve the transition of the child into group care. While this is an practice that might improve the quality of the child care experience for all concerned, at this time, this idea is not often feasible in Canada where few employers offer child care leave.

In Norway, the Act governing Day Care states that day care should be organized in close cooperation with the homes of the children. As a result, the government has made it mandatory that the day care should be organized in close cooperation with homes of children. One board is the Board of Directors. It is made up of parents, staff, and owners. Also, each board is counselled by the Parents' Council which is composed of all parents.

In addition, in Norway the kindergarten is involved to some extent in community agencies. Children with special needs have specially trained teachers or counsellors from service affiliated with educational authorities. Kindergartens are in close cooperation with local health and social services. In public kindergarten only, when there are more than four students who speak the same mother tongue, the centre will provide heritage language teaching.

Regulation

Practically no information was found regarding the regulation of kindergartens.

PREPRIMARY SCHOOLING

Again, Moss' definitions are problematic for Canadian and American programs. Moss refers to these programs as preprimary schooling but are more commonly called kindergartens here.

Preprimary schooling is provided in Canada, Denmark, Norway, Czechoslovakia, Italy, Finland, the German Democratic Republic, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Our review did not clarify whether or not Sweden and Union of Soviet Socialist Republics provide preprimary schooling. In most of these countries, the proportion of children who attend is very high. In United Kingdom and Federal Republic of Germany, coverage is extremely variable. In the United Kingdom, the percentage of children under 4 attending nursery schools or nursery classes ranges from 0-66%. In Federal Republic of Germany, the highest percentage of children attending Vorshulklass is 27% in Berlin.

Operator

In all of the countries where preprimary schooling is provided, it is operated under the auspices of the department of education. In some countries, there are private as well as public schools. For instance, in Italy, while 50% of all children attend preprimary schooling operated by the central government and 16% attended preprimary schooling operated by the local authorities, 39% attended preprimary schooling provided by private operators. Twenty-three per cent of these private operators were religious orders. Similarly, in the German Democratic Republic preprimary schools are operated by the community, factories, collectives, and churches. In countries with private schools, do these schools have to operate under the same regulation as the public schools? How does the particular operator change the child care service?

Location

Preprimary schooling is usually operated within primary schools. In the UK, some nursery schools operate outside primary schools. However, this trend is changing, probably because operating within a school reduces costs by sharing more overhead expenses. In the German Democratic Republic, sometimes krippen and kindergarten are constructed jointly. This might be advantageous for families because the children could attend the same centre.

Time of Operation

In Italy, it appears that there has been an effort to coordinate child care services so that the child is in care during standard working hours. Where preprimary schooling is operated by the state, the local authorities, and private operators, the state nursery schools are required by law to operate from either 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m., or 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. The local authority-run schools are not legislated to operate for eight hours but they must provide school-based outside school hours care.

Funding

In all of the countries which provide preprimary education, public preprimary schooling is free for the public. In all countries public education is funded by the government.

Coordinating Mechanisms

In Denmark, 90% of the children 5-6 years old attend preprimary schooling for 3-4 hours per day or 15-20 hours per week. Since preprimary schooling is part-time, most children attend a recreational centre, kindergarten, family home child care, or unlicensed child care for part of the day. How do they get from one program to the other? Does the area of the country or the part of the city affect the combination of child care options offered or used. In Danish cities, children usually attend bornehaver full-time because traffic makes it is too dangerous for children to travel unassisted from one program site to another. Furthermore, is the content of any of these programs and the content of bornehavelklasser integrated in any way.

OUTSIDE SCHOOL HOURS CARE

Operator

This is group care for older school-aged children who must attend school. In Denmark, outside school hours child care is provided by the local authorities or private organizations funded by them. In the Federal Republic of Germany, outside school hours child care is provided by the Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs. In the UK, 40% of outside school hours child care is provided by the local authorities and the other by various private groups. In Canada and the United States, outside school hours child care is offered by a whole range of providers--schools, regions, municipalities, commercial operators, and community agencies. In Sweden, Italy, and France, the operators were not clear from the literature reviewed. In Finland, the German Democratic Republic, Norway, the United Soviet Socialist Republics, and Czechoslovakia, mention was made of whether or not outside school hours care is provided.

Location

Outside school hours care is primarily school-based in Denmark, France, and Italy. In Sweden, the Federal Republic of Germany, and the UK, outside school hours care is mostly centre-based. In Canada, the United States, and Denmark, outside school hours care is provided in both schools and centres. Further research on outside school hours care might focus on the characteristics of the programs offered in schools and centres, and the advantages and disadvantages offered by the two locations.

Time of Operation

There appears to be some variation in terms of when the outside school hours programs are offered. This variation depends to some degree on the hours of operation of the pre-primary and primary schooling and on the time period when the care is offered. For instance, in France, during the term, outside school hours child care is available at the schools. However, during the holidays, children of several schools are taken care of at one school or a centre.

Funding

In Denmark, centre-based outside school hours care, is funded by the educational committees of local authorities. However, school-based outside school hours care is funded by social welfare committees of the local authorities. Parental fees vary with income.

Coordinating Mechanisms

Little information was found regarding outside school hours care and coordinating mechanisms. Such information is particularly important with these programs because outside school hours care are programs that are supplementary to other programs that do not quite span the adult day, and as such need to be coordinated with the "major" program of the day.

For all countries and all programs, little information is available on the coordinating mechanisms which are employed within and among various types of programs. Perhaps more than any other topic, that of coordinating mechanisms and how they work would be a useful area of research. This research would entail many different types of coordination e.g. parent/program coordination; intra-program coordination; and inter-program coordination, on many different levels e.g. a neighbourhood level; a municipal or regional level; a state level; and an international level. For in understanding coordinating mechanisms, we are able to visualize how different components fit together in a comprehensive child care model and determine why a system may work in one environment and fail in another. Furthermore, we would be able to implement the necessary coordination mechanisms to make our own child care system organic. This means that we would be able to establish a system that not only meets current needs but one that also, incorporates its own adjustment process. In other words, understanding coordination and coordinating mechanisms will give us the information required to build a child care system that is self-monitoring, and thus, responsive to meeting new needs.

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

School-aged child care is in a position, similar to that of preschool childcare, fifteen to twenty years ago. As baby boomers began to have children in the 1960's and 1970's, and more mothers entered the workforce, the need for child care burgeoned. The response to this need came from many quarters; community-based agencies, commercial operators, parent organizations, schools, etc. Researchers scrambled to catch up and now a considerable body of literature exists on preschool child care.

Similarly, as the social and economic structure of the country has continued to change, a growing demand for school-aged child care has emerged. A variety of providers has responded to the need, but research has been slow to follow. To date, there has been relatively little research done on school-aged care and of these, several studies suffer from methodological problems, problems in reporting and lack of generalizability to larger populations. Ideally, there would be sufficient and appropriate information to allow child care specialists to develop models of school-aged care. Unfortunately, researchers are still a distance away from model building. There simply is not the body of knowledge to support such endeavours. However, we are at the point where there is sufficient information available to permit us to put the first building blocks of the models in place. The information is found in various places -- from the few research studies done on school-aged child care, from surveys of parents needs, preferences and behaviours, from the work done on older preschool children, on self-care children, and so on. In some instances, the selection and placement of these first few blocks will be speculative and tentative. In other instances, they will likely form the cornerstones of the models to come.

Let us begin with the other side of the coin: self-care children or children who are not supervised by an adult outside of school hours. ("Latchkey" and "unsupervised" are terms used less frequently because of their negative connotations.) The argument that self-care children are more prone to stress, anxiety, fear, isolation, injuries and anti-social behaviour (Alexander, 1986) is used as the rationale for removing children from self-care situations and placing them under adult supervision. It is the rationale for school-aged child care. However, the evidence regarding the effects of self-care is still inconclusive, partly because so little research has been done to confirm or invalidate earlier findings. For example, the oft-quoted study by Long and Long (1981) found that sixth-grade black students attending a parochial school in Washington, DC experienced fear, loneliness and boredom when placed in self-care situations. However, the generalizability of this study to other populations is obviously limited given the unique characteristics of the sample.

The work of Gold and Andres (1978) suggests that ecological variables play a significant role in the amount of stress experienced by self-care children. Contrary to Long and Long's findings, they found no differences in the academic or social development of Montreal children regardless of whether they were supervised or in self-care. Galambos and Garbarino (1983) believe that this is evidence that self-care children in non-stressful urban environments are no more prone to stress, anxiety, fear, etc. than children who are supervised by adults. Their own research finds that self-care children in low-stress rural areas are no more or less, socially or academically adjusted than supervised children.

Nonetheless, many families live in stressful urban environments, and require the income earned by both parents. In single-parent families, there is virtually no choice but to work. Still, others have a need to fulfill career and personal goals. For all of these reasons, there is a demand for school-aged child care. Although experimental research for school-aged children is still limited, there have been efforts in Canada and the United States to at least survey the need for care and parental satisfaction with programs so that appropriate child care can be developed and implemented.

Two types of survey research have been done; one, at a relatively local level such as a municipality or a school board and the other at a higher macro level such as the province, state or nation. Surveys at the local level tend to try to define both the need and often, possible responses to meet the demands of the immediate community. At the provincial or national level, surveys seek to determine need usually for the purposes of funding, policy and planning.

Pence and Goelman (1987) report on a local level survey carried out in Victoria, B.C. to determine parental preferences and attitudes toward their current child care arrangements and desired changes to these arrangements. The authors conclude that no single model of care suits everyone optimally; each family has its own unique set of circumstances and needs.

Another municipal level survey was conducted by the Metro Toronto Children's Advisory Group. This study took a comprehensive look at school-aged child care in Metropolitan Toronto. By using a relatively generous definition of care, it included most licensed and unlicensed types of arrangements. In total, the survey was able to present a relatively accurate description of the various providers of school-aged child care in Metropolitan Toronto, identifying strengths and weaknesses in the network (Neufeldt, Ferguson, Friendly and Stephens, 1984).

An upper-middle class American suburb was the target area for Davis and Solomon (1980). Although the report lacks sufficient detail to permit readers to distinguish, for example, between types of school-aged care, the findings are interesting. These parents prefer to have someone come to their homes to mind their children and like centre-care least. Obviously, an alternative such as own-home-care is too expensive for many families but the study does underscore the diversity of child care arrangements needed to meet the needs of all families.

Other researchers have chosen to look at certain sub-groups to identify their child care preferences, attitudes and behaviours. For example, Turner and Gallegos (1984) surveyed single- and two-parent families on these measures and found that parents place a premium on locational convenience, quality of care and cleanliness; that parents are sensitive to costs but it is more of a problem for single parents; and centres need to offer a more diverse range of related support services to parents. Also, like other investigators (eg. Farel, 1984 and Fugua and Labensohn, 1986), Turner and Gallegos conclude that parents need to be better informed about the options open to them.

For additional examples of local level surveys, see Levine and Seltzer (1980) who look at Arlington, Virginia; Denver, Colorado; and Brookline, Massachusetts; and Parker (1981) who reports on the situation in St. Louis Park, Minnesota.

Many states conduct surveys to determine attitudes, needs and preferences for child care. A fairly typical study was conducted in Florida. It found that citizens expressed a number of negative feelings toward school-aged children, possibly because they as a populace are older and no longer require child care. One of the concluding recommendations was that the state should encourage diversity and local initiatives so that locales which do express an interest and need could be accommodated (Florida House of Representatives, 1985).

A state-of-the-system survey was carried out in North Carolina public schools, specifically for after-school care. Powers and Anderson (1986) provide a statistical picture of that state's one hundred and forty-one public school systems. This information base is used to supply decision making data back into the political process.

For another example of a large scale survey, see the Ohio Historical Society's (1988) report prepared for the Oregon Commission on Child Care.

Falling somewhere between the local and regional/national surveys, is the nationwide survey of over three hundred families that Lero (1985) completed for the Status of Women Task Force on Child Care. Her study is unique in that she adopted a case study approach to her research. Unfortunately, she acknowledges that "(her sample is) not a representative sample of the Canadian population or its subgroups for statistical purposes" (p.12). However, the sample was selected so that most income, regional, urban/rural situations and children's age ranges would be included. Because of her case study methodology, Lero is able to contribute detailed information on most topics. What emerges, partly because of the detail brought out in the case studies is the tremendous variety of families seeking care for their children and consequently the range of care alternatives required to satisfy most parents.

One of the recurring themes found in the material reviewed above and explicitly stated by others (eg. Kuiken, 1985) is that the need for care is complex, that no single model or set of characteristics could hope to satisfy the needs of all families. In other words, the need for more detailed research, to look at more precisely defined populations, with more tightly controlled research designs is imperative. The research done to date, helps lay the foundation for future studies.

The importance of quality of care for school-aged children has been examined but not demonstrated conclusively. For example, Mayesky (1980a,1980b) who found significant differences between extended-day participants and non-participants in reading and math lacked a true control group. Similarly, the quality of child care environment has been shown to exert a positive effect on language and social development of young school-aged children (although these studies suffer from poor reporting and a questionable reliance on a global index of quality; McCartney, 1984 and McCartney, Scarr, Phillips and Grajek, 1985). Mayesky (1979), also, makes claims regarding enhanced self-concept of extended-day children but presents no data, merely attributing gains to a relaxed atmosphere, lower teacher:pupil ratio and child-centred curriculum.

Demonstration and pilot projects have been established in various locales but little research has emerged from them. Although they are typically very successful, they are usually quite site-specific and often recipients of extra funding and other advantages; their generalizability to other areas must be established by thorough documentation and research. Furthermore, they are often the recipients of extra funding and other advantages. An example may be useful. Dickinson (1989) reports on an apparently effective child care program in Welland, Ontario. Its success seems to be largely attributable to its organizational structure which features considerable regional and community co-operation. However, whether such a high degree of co-operation and co-ordination could be achieved in a larger urban centre or for more than a small number of centres is doubtful. Finally, some of the gains attributed to these programs may be due to the Hawthorne effect. See Caldwell, 1981 and 1985; Friendly and Corea, 1986; Moilanen and Mitchell, 1986 and Beaver, 1987.

Many writers argue that child care programs should be modelled as extensions of the school curriculum a particularly logical connection to make for school-based programs (Howes, Olenick and Der-Kiureghian, 1987). However, upon closer examination, it is not always clear that the link between the centre and the school is advocated because it is good for the children or because the parents seem to prefer it (Rubin and Medrich 1979 and Goldfine and Wagner, 1987). Proponents of the centre-school link may be incorrectly assuming that it leads to greater parent involvement.

Gosling (1987) has found that in a school-based program where the centre's program is an extension of the home than the school, parents still are involved because they make the association between centre and school regardless.

Parent involvement is one characteristic which is widely held to be an important contributor to high quality care (Kuchak, Murphy, Altman, Brandis, Cusgrove and Saavedo, 1983).

Some investigators have found that parents select providers on the basis of the caregiver's philosophy even more than cost (Pence and Goelman, 1987 and Moore, 1980), although cost assumes greater importance for low income families (Feral, 1984 and Powell and Widdows, 1987). A child-centred philosophy is often recommended as one of the key features of a quality program ("School Age Day Care..." 1980) but Beaver (1987) finds that more structured teacher-centred programs can also be good caregivers.

Given the obvious range of need and the consequent variety of child care services required to meet these needs some specialists such as Kuiken (1987) and Neufeldt, Ferguson, Friendly and Stephens (1984) propose a child care network where related support services are available with a range of care options. Although there is some validity to such a model, Neufeldt, et al, acknowledges that it would be expensive. It would certainly be difficult to establish in all but the larger urban centres.

The problem of model building is exacerbated by the fact that no single model can optimally meet the wide range of school-aged child care needs. More than one model will have to be developed and these will have to be flexible to meet the specific and unique needs of the groups adopting them. At the moment, there is insufficient information to construct even a single comprehensive model although individual factors have emerged as important such as parent involvement and quality of care as established by standards and regulations. However, there is clearly, much more to be done.

The real answer lies in more school-aged child care research, with explicit hypotheses to be tested, soundly designed, well documented and clearly reported. In particular, the research must be refined considerably. For example, there is a large difference between a six year old child and an eleven year old child yet virtually no research on school-aged child care makes this distinction. There is almost no research on rural and small urban environments and no research on the provision of school-aged care for children with special needs. Similarly, our literature search on the needs of ethnic communities turned up only a single somewhat dated American reference (Fandetti, 1976). No research literature has appeared on the school-aged child care needs of Native Peoples. And finally, to obtain a complete picture of school-aged child care, the whole matter of informal unlicensed care must be introduced. Unfortunately, even less research has been done on these types of programs, eg. library clubs, recreational programs and Phonefriend. Clearly, there are many gaps yet to be filled. Without more complete and accurate information, providing high quality school-aged child care will remain a largely intuitive exercise.

PART III

An Annotated Bibliography

(Where appropriate, annotations are summarized as school- or non-school-based, the operator and whether the program is urban- or rural-based.)

(ERIC Document numbers are provided when available.)

INTERNATIONAL
(Non-North American)

Cochran, Moncrieff M. and Gunnarsson, Lars (1985), "A Follow-up of Group Day Care and Family-Based Childrearing Patterns", Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47 (2): 297-309. One hundred and two five-year old Swedish children living in Gothenburg comprised the sample for a longitudinal study looking into the relationship between care settings (home and centre) and selected development characteristics. The main findings are that over the four year period of the research, 1) family situations of both home- and centre-based children changed and that these changes must be considered in detail because they affect family options, potential and plans, 2) girls were better developed socially than boys regardless of setting, 3) centre-based boys from two-parent families were socially more advanced than boys from one-parent homes,and 4) the expectations and socialization of boys differs from girls in both the centres and home settings.

* Non-school-based/operator unspecified/urban.

Cohen, Bronwen (1988), Caring for Children: Services and Policies for Childcare and Equal Opportunities in the United Kingdom (London: Commission of the European Communities). A detailed comprehensive report on the status of child care services and equal employment opportunities for women in the United Kingdom, it could serve as a model for other countries. Based on hard data and recent historical trends, Cohen makes a number of recommendations to government in these areas. School-aged child care is discussed explicitly and not merely implied under a general discussion of child care.

Esbensen, Steen (1983), Day Care in Scandinavia (Ottawa: Health and Welfare Canada). A useful document of child care in Denmark, Sweden and Norway. Esbensen provides descriptions

of each country's programs in terms of the usual characteristics, eg. age groups served, relevant legislation, types of programs available, etc.

Friendly, Martha (1987), "School-Age Childcare Survey: Literature Review". (Manuscript). A cross-cultural comparison of school-aged child care in the Soviet Union, Sweden, France and Canada. In particular, the review focuses on the Canadian response to the need for school- aged child care. In addition, the author notes that there are "important gaps in our knowledge about care outside of regular school hours for young school-aged children in the areas of need, effects, models, and program activities and curriculum" especially compared to the literature devoted to preschool child care and related family and policy issues.
* Non-school-based/community agency operator/urban.

Haas, Linda (1987), "Fathers' Participation in Parental Leave", Social Change, No. 37 (New York: Swedish Consulate General). This study looks at the barriers to Swedish fathers taking time off work to care for newborn children. Although there are some structural obstacles to men's participation in child rearing, traditional sex roles are equally resistant to change.

Holmes, Brian, ed. (1983), International Handbook of Education Systems, Vol. 1 (Toronto: John Wiley & Sons). One of a three volume set. This handbook provides summaries of the education systems including preschool of most Europe countries and Canada. The United States is not included in any of the volumes.

Husen, Torsten and Postlethwaite, T. Neville, eds. (1985), The International Encyclopedia of Education, Vols. 1-10 (Toronto: Pergamon). A ten volume work which contains among other things, summaries of the educational systems of many countries. The quality of the coverage varies considerably but for most of the western nations, the information is reasonably up to date and covers most of the main issues.

Joice, Adrian (1988), "Starting School in West Germany", Child Education, 65 (2): 18-19. One of a series of short articles on international early childhood and primary education.

Kamerman, Sheila B. and Khan, Alfred J. (1981), Child Care, Family Benefits, and Working Parents: A Study in Comparative Policy (New York, NY: Columbia University Press). Extensive data on various policies related to children, child care, costs and the family are presented for six countries - the United States, France, Sweden, West Germany, East Germany and Hungary. In addition, the authors made site visits in each country, speaking with government officials and agency personnel. The end result is a relatively comprehensive look at child care in each country including their underlying philosophies, strengths and weaknesses.

Kamerman, Sheila B. (1988). "Child Care Policies and Programs: An International Overview" (Paper prepared for the Workshop on International Developments in Child Care, National Academy of Science/National Research Council, Aug. 9, 1988). The author looks at child care policies and programs for seventeen countries including Canada. She examines each country in turn, its philosophy, how progressive its programs are, the ages affected, relevant demographics and how successful its programs have been.

Kelly, Chris (1989), "The Norwegian Way", Child Education, 66 (1): 17-19. One of series of short articles on international early childhood and primary education.

Kurian, George Thomas, ed. (1988), World Education Encyclopedia, Vols. 1-3 (New York: Facts on File). One of a three volume set. These books present summaries of the education systems including preschool of most countries and are more detailed than the synopses found in Holmes (1983).

Kuzin, N. and Kondakov, M. eds. (1977), Education in the USSR (Moscow: Progress Publishers). This is a collection of articles written on various aspects of child care and education in the Soviet Union.

Leira, Arnlaug (1987), Daycare for Children in Denmark, Norway and Sweden (Oslo, Norway: Institute for Social Research). ED 286 658 PS 016 894. A comprehensive look at the structural aspects of child care in Denmark, Norway and Sweden, including provision (supply and demand), distribution, management and finances. In addition, the report looks at child care against the societal changes experienced in these countries. Program types found in these countries are described and discussed in detail. The report also, presents recent data on various aspects of care and related topics.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs (nd),"Primary and Secondary Education", Fact Sheet (Copenhagen: Ministry of Foreign Affairs). A Fact Sheet which includes some information relevant to school-aged child care. No statistics are provided.

Mortimore, Peter; Sammons, Pamela; Stoll, Louise; Lewis, David and Ecob, Russel (1988), School Matters (Berkeley, CA: University of California Press). This book presents the findings of a multi-disciplinary research project on primary education in the United Kingdom. The premise is that schools can make a significant difference to the performance of young children. The research seeks to isolate the characteristics which contribute most to effective schools. There are a few references to the linkages between day school and child care programs.

Moss, Peter (1988), Childcare and Equality of Opportunity-Consolidated Report to the European Commission, Final Version, (Manuscript). This is a major work on child care in twelve European countries (Germany, France, Italy, Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Denmark, Greece, Portugal and Spain). It takes as its perspectives, child care as a women's and societal issue, quality (eg. standards and regulations) versus quantity (eg. how many spaces?) concerns, a policy-oriented position including the role of governments (local, regional and national in the development, establishment and maintenance of child care initiatives, child care worker issues and a move to "harmonize" and make more equitable the child care situations in the European Community countries.

The report contains considerable detailed information on both background issues such as labour participation rates and data on the types and characteristics of programs operated in each country.

National Board of Social Welfare (1984), "Day Care Institutions in Denmark", (Copenhagen: National Board of Social Welfare). A recently compiled report on the status of child care in Denmark. Some statistics are included.

National Board of Social Welfare (1986), "Child Day Care in Finland" (Helsinki: National Board of Social Welfare.) An informative booklet containing basic facts and figures on the Finnish child care system.

Papadopoulos, Antonis (1988), The Contact School Plan: Visit to the Swedish Contact School (Faanskolan, Falkenbert), (Strasbourg, France: Council for Cultural Cooperation). ED 288 646. This is a study for a Swedish project school where

children are not grouped by age or ability but rather by unit; each unit consists of a nursery department, junior and intermediate classes with its own staff including teachers, recreational leaders, kitchen and cleaning staff. The nursery school provides 47 child care spaces, 18 part-time day nursery spaces and 30 spaces for 7-12 year old who need supervision outside of school hours. Through attention to 1) school climate, 2) building and equipment, 3) the children's affective and cognitive development and 4) parental involvement, observers noted that children were outwardly healthy and happy and exhibited high levels of social and emotional development, creativity and individualism. Also, the observer noted the importance of the headmaster's role in setting the tone of the school. The only cautionary note was that perhaps the curriculum was too child-centred and that a little more structure would be useful.

* School-based/demonstration project, operator unknown/ small urban.

Sailor, Dorothy Holin (1980), "In Czechoslovakia and East Germany: The Nurturing of Young Children in Child Care Centres", Childhood Education, 56 (5): 281-284. This article is based on the author's first hand observations of child care programs in Czechoslovakia and East Germany. The author delves into child care goals, programs, research and parent involvement.

Sandford, Barbara (nd), Coordinated Housing and Child Care Development: A Review of the Literature and the State of the Art (Toronto: Direction 2000). A rather superficial cross-cultural look at child care philosophies. Sandford identifies three types of family policies; those with explicit comprehensive family policies such as France, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Norway and Sweden; countries with explicit but less comprehensive policies such as Austria,

the Federal Republic of Germany, Poland, Finland and Denmark; and countries with implicit reluctant policies such as the United Kingdom, Israel, the United States and Canada. Part of the discussion for the Canadian case focuses on the inclusion of childcare in housing initiatives.

(The) Swedish Child Care Leave Act (1985), (Stockholm, Sweden: Ministry of Labour). An English translation of the Swedish Child Care Leave Act.

The Swedish Institute (nd),"Child Care Programs in Sweden", Fact Sheets on Sweden (Stockholm: The Swedish Institute). This fact sheet provides a concise reference for child care in Sweden. Its discussion centres on children up to 12 years of age and includes demographic changes, programs, costs and current issues.

Thorburn, Iain (1985), "North of the Border", Child Education, 62 (4): 10-12. One of a series of short articles on international early childhood and primary education.

Townson, Monica (1985), Paid Parental Leave Policies: An International Comparison, with Options for Canada (A Study prepared for the Task Force on Child Care, (manuscript.) The author gathers data on paid parental leave policies for twenty-five countries including Canada.

Van Der Eyken, Willem (1979), "Community Nurseries", Early Child Development and Care, 6 (1 and 2): 61-72. Community nurseries emerged in England in the early 1970s to meet the needs of working mothers and young children. They are essentially a form of neighborhood care relying greatly on parent involvement. The author describes the growth of community nurseries, their potential and their problems.
* Non-school-based/parent operated/urban-rural unspecified.

Wilton, Gill (1986), "Learning Soviet Style", Child Education, 63 (5): 23-24. One of a series of short articles on international early childhood and primary education.

GUIDELINES AND HOW-TO MANUALS

Baden, Ruth Kramer; Genser, Andrea; Levine, James A. and Selgison, Michelle (1982), School-Age Child Care: An Action Manual (Dover, MA: Auburn House). The authors, all of whom have considerable expertise in child care have written a thorough and detailed manual for anyone setting up a school-aged child care program. In addition to their own experiences, they looked at a nationwide cross-section of programs, reporting on their strengths and when relevant, their weaknesses. Pulling together all of this information has resulted in this manual which covers all of the major issues, concerns and protocols in a logical, programmed manner.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/ mostly urban.

Cohen, Abby J., (1984), **A Manual for Public School Administrators: Legal Considerations for the Implementation of School-Age Child Care, Wellesley: Wellesley College Center for Research on Women.** A legal manual designed to allay the fears of school administrators and others who are considering the implementation of school-aged child care in their schools. This manual identifies in an organized and readable style the primary legal areas of concern and suggests ways to minimize legal problems.

The manual is divided into eight chapters which discuss the following legal considerations: 1) enabling legislation, the legislation that authorizes the public school to participate in the provision of school-aged child care; 2) school board resolution considerations, the resolutions that serve to legitimate and institutionalize school-aged child care throughout the district; 3) regulatory considerations; 4) liability considerations; 5) special needs considerations;

6) anti-trust/unfair competition and related considerations; 7) staffing considerations; and 8) rental agreement/lease/contract considerations.

Also included are five appendices: a model school-aged child care enabling statute; a model school board resolution; an example of guidelines for the operation of school-aged child care programs; and a checklist of areas of concern for schools and programs; and a sample lease.

Curriculum: A Program for Young Children (1983), (Toronto: Early Childhood Education Department, Toronto Board of Education). This document outlines curriculum for young primary school children based on child-centred principals. A philosophical background and rationale for each element of the curriculum is provided. The curriculum covers the learning environment, language, math, the arts, environmental studies and parent involvement.

Dickinson, Pat (1989), **"Niagara South is Creating New Partnerships for Care and Education", FWTAO Newsletter, April/May 1989.** Dickinson provides a first hand report of the child care initiatives being made by the Niagara South Board of Education. Responding to the Ministry of Education's call for more comprehensive, community-based education, this Board has developed a model of child care based on these principles. The model located in Welland is actually an alternative to the establishment of junior kindergartens and is predicated on the belief that the establishment of early childhood centres will provide services to a broader age group (up to 10 years) of children and promote more active involvement with community agencies. The principal and vice-principal are in charge of implementation and coordination. It is not known if a model requiring such a great deal of coordination and co-operation from a number of parties could work as well in a larger urban centre.

Dumont, Linda; Cryer, Debby; Rolandelli, Pamela and Clifford, Richard M. (1987), School-Age Child Care: A Handbook for North Carolina Schools (Raleigh, NC: North Carolina State Dept. of Public Instruction). Based on a statewide survey of educational agencies, this is a relatively detailed "how to" document for those interested in setting up or maintaining school-aged child care programs. It covers the usual topics of needs assessment, licensing, budget, staffing, program, parent involvement and evaluation. Samples of forms and instruments are included as is an annotated bibliography.

McCurdy, Jack (1985), "Schools Respond to Latchkey Children", The School Administrator, (March): 16-18. A look at both sides of the issue regarding school-aged school-based care. On the pro side, McCurdy cites 1) the schools' facilities, knowledge and experience, convenience for parents, building community support for schools, putting school buildings to greater use, reducing vandalism and maintaining enrollments in schools. On the con side he mentions 1) that it represents an intrusion of the government into family matters, 2) possible higher taxes, 3) increased responsibilities on school staffs, 4) the potential for diverting money from regular day schools to child care and 5) undetermined legal liabilities. He mentions private industry as one largely untapped source of assistance.
* School-based/school board operated/urban-rural unspecified.

Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (1987). Public Schools and School-Age Child Care: Making it Happen!, (Jefferson City, MO: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education). ED 290 553. A "how to" on setting up school-based school-aged child care based on a state-wide survey of about five hundred programs. It looks at three

stages of opening a centre: program initiation, program administration and program implementation. These sections are detailed and offer samples of needs assessment instruments, job descriptions for staff and questions to be at the interviews, program evaluation checklist, etc.

* School-based/school board operated(?)/urban-rural unspecified.

Neugebauer, Roger (1979). "School Age Day Care: Getting it off the Ground". Child Care Information Exchange, 10, (November): 9-14. A typical grassroots newsletter providing information to those interested in starting up a school-aged child care centre. Topics covered include "getting organized", "determining costs and resources", "assessing needs" and "recruiting children".

Seligson, Michelle (1980a), "Planning for School-Age Child Care in Public Schools", Day Care and Early Education, (Fall): 45-49. A brief political "how to" as opposed to the more common program oriented and program set-up cookbooks. Seligson discusses the roles played by the community, the school principal, school board superintendents and trustees and how to best obtain their support.

Seligson, Michelle (1980b), "Starting Programs: Critical Elements and Stumbling Blocks: The Experience of a Parent-Run Program in the Public Schools", (Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College Centre for Research on Women). Seligson describes the collaborative efforts of parent groups and school officials in Brookline, Massachusetts to introduce school-aged care into the schools.

* School-based/school board operator and parent board operator/urban.

Texas Department of Human Resources (1978), "The Development of School-Age Day Care", reprinted from, Jane Whitbread, "It's

Four O'Clock Do You Know Where Your Children Are?", Women Who Work (Special issue of Family Circle, March 1978).

The factors to be considered in setting up a school-aged program are presented by practitioners with extensive experience. The second part of the article chronicles the evolution of the Extend-A-Care Organization of Austin, Texas as school-aged care providers. The third part describes the resources necessary to operate programs. (See also, Fink 1987c).

* Non-School-based/community agency operated/urban.

SPECIAL NEEDS

Children with Special Needs in Day Care: A Guide to Integration (1978) (Ottawa, Ont: Health and Welfare Canada). Typical of most writing of a decade ago school-aged children are not mentioned. However, the issue today is much more evident and some of the concerns presented in this government report can be extended to an older population. Also, a report such as this can be profitably read as background to the present situation as described by Fink (1987a, 1987b and 1987c).

Fink, Dale B. (1987a), "Child Care Dilemma: Family Day Care: An Option for Parents", The Exceptional Parent, 17 (2): 18-21. The first of three articles which addresses the problem of the care needs of handicapped school-aged children. Fink discusses the role of family day cares as service providers for these children and describes several American models.

* Non-school-based/commercially operated/urban-rural unspecified.

Fink, Dale (1987b), "Child Care Dilemma: Schools Begin to Respond", The Exceptional Parent, 17 (3): 54-59. The second of three articles which address the problem of mentally, physically and emotionally handicapped school-aged children. Most parents prefer mainstreamed child care even if their children are not in mainstreamed school programs. Fink describes the Springfield, Illinois Board of Education's response to the problem.

*School-based/school board operation/urban.

Fink, Dale B (1987c), "Day Care Dilemma, Austin: A Community Responds", The Exceptional Parent, 17 (4): 42-46. The third article in Fink's series on the care needs of handicapped school-aged children. This report describes the progressive situation in Austin, Texas.

* Location unspecified/operator unspecified/urban and rural.

RESEARCH REVIEWS

Belsky, Jay and Steinberg, Laurence D. (1978), "Effects of Day Care: A Critical Review", Child Development, 49: 929-949. A good review of the major areas of inquiry in the field of day care in the 1970s. However, as such, it focuses on the old question, "Is day care good or bad for children?" Also, research into the area of school-aged care was (and largely still is) in its infancy and therefore is not discussed by Belsky and Steinberg. Rather, when schools are mentioned it is about the interface between day care and the child's subsequent school experiences. Nevertheless, there is much food for thought here for the researcher interested in looking at older children and school-aged care.

Haskins, Ron (1989). "Beyond Metaphor: The Efficacy of Early Childhood Education". American Psychologist, 44 (2): 274-282. The author looks at Head Start programs in the United States and concludes from the available evidence that gains attributable to preschool (0-4 years) participation are not sustained for more than a couple of years although there are some data from model programs that gains in terms of such indicators as teen pregnancy, delinquency, welfare use and employment are permanent.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/ mostly inner city.

Phillips, Deborah A., Ed. (1987), Quality in Child Care: What Does Research Tell Us? (Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children). Phillips has collected seven articles by researchers prominent in the field of child care research. The papers range from a general discussion of indicators of quality to case studies where indicators were successfully defined and utilized in research. Although the focus is on young children, there is overlap with the school-aged population. Some of the chapters appeared elsewhere and are annotated separately here, eg. Pence and Goelman (1987), McCartney (1984) and McCartney, Scarr, Phillips and Grajek (1985).

Powell, Douglas R. (1987), "Research in Review: After-School Child Care", Young Children, (March): 62-66. Powell reviews twenty-two articles which deal with some aspect of latchkey children or after-school child care. (Most are annotated here.) Despite the paucity of sound research for school-aged children, he looks at the consequences of placing children in self-care situations, decision-making considerations for parents and the importance of ecological factors in determining child care quality.
* School-based/operators unspecified/Urban and Rural.

Snow, Charles W. (1983), As the Twig is Bent: A Review of Research on the Consequences of Day Care with Implications for Caregiving (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association for the Education of Young Children, Atlanta, GA. Nov. 3-6, 1983), ED 238 594. Although Snow's review is just on the verge of being out-of-date, many of the methodological issues he discusses are still relevant and still largely unresolved today.

RESEARCH STUDIES, SURVEYS
AND NEEDS ASSESSMENTS

Abt Associates (1979), Children at the Centre: Final Report of the National Day Care Study, Executive Summary, (Cambridge, MA: U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare). This report summarizes the results of a national (U.S.) study on day care from 1974-78. The analysis presented in this Executive Summary revolves around quality and cost-of-preschool-care issues the report concludes with recommendations for Federal Policy.

Abt Associates (1981), Family Day Care in the United States, National Day Care Home Study Final Report, Executive Summary, (Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services). This report summarizes the results of a national (U.S.) study on day care from 1976-80. The analysis presented in this Executive Summary revolves around the characteristics of family day care. The parents of children in care, observations of sites and costs. Policy recommendations are included.

Applied Management Sciences, Inc. (1983), School-Age Day Care Study, Executive Summary, (Silver Springs, MD: Applied Management Sciences, Inc.). ED 241 138. Executive Summary of Kuchak, et al (1983).

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/ urban-rural.

Beaver, Nancy H. (1987), Somebody Cares: Eight Model Child-Care Programs for School-Age Children in Texas, (Austin, TX: Corporate Child Development Fund). ED 288 646. This report describes eight school-aged child care programs in Texas. The programs chosen because of their exemplary performances represent a range of operator, funding and program options. Descriptions of the operator, licence status, premises,

enrolment and ages, age grouping, staff:child ratio, parental involvement, staff qualifications and curriculum are included. One of the few articles reviewed where unlicensed recreational programs are discussed as a school-aged child care option. However, while program evaluations (usually surveys of parent, staff and director satisfaction) for each of the eight sites are mentioned, none is presented. A contact person for each program is given.
* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/urban.

Biemiller, Andrew; Regan, Ellen and Lero, Donna (1985), Early Childhood Programs in Canada (Urbana: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education). ED 264 976. The authors present an overview of Canadian early childhood programs. Included are discussions of relevant programs, their financial and administrative supports, trends, current political issues of "how much of what kinds?" and a brief summary of research.

Bridgeland, William M.; Duane, Edward A.; Smith, Philip R. and Toler, Jerome (1986), Report of Michigan State University Child-Care Survey (East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University). ED 290 529. This survey was undertaken by Michigan State University to assess the need for child care among its faculty and staff. Their findings include: 1) that the parents are of middle to high socio-economic status; 2) 30% had no child care problems; 3) 2% had special needs for the care of a handicapped child; 4) well over half saw no need to change care arrangements in the next two years; 5) one-quarter of the parents indicated a need for emergency or sick care; and 6) while most children were not classified as latchkey, over one-quarter spent regular times unsupervised by an adult.
* Non-school-based/employer operator/urban.

Browne, Angela C. (1985), "The Market Sphere: Private Responses to the Need for Day Care", Child Welfare, 64 (4): 367-381. Child care is analyzed as a commodity to be bought and sold and subject to market force influences. The author argues that both profit and non-profit service providers are influenced by a mix of economic and moral incentives. Employer-sponsored programs are evaluated on the basis of increased worker productivity (resulting from greater peace of mind, higher morale, easier recruitment, less absenteeism, etc.). Parents as consumers are influenced by 1) cost, 2) authority (or apparent authority) figures who are looked upon as experts, 3) knowledge (or lack of knowledge), 4) cultural norms which ensure that the choice of care is acceptable to the parent peer group, 5) convenience and 6) supply. School-aged child care is not differentiated from child care generally.

* Non-school-based/profit and non-profit, various operators/ urban-rural unspecified.

Burchinal, Margaret; Lee, Marvin and Ramey, Craig (1989),"Type of Day-Care and Preschool Intellectual Development in Disadvantaged Children", Child Development, 60): 128-137. The authors compare the intellectual development of three groups of preschoolers (whose oldest ages overlap with the youngest school-aged children). The three groups of children were in 1) a university-based intervention day care centre, 2) community day care centres and 3) non-centre or virtually no centre care. Two repeated-measures analyses of variance found that both Group 1 and Group 2 types of day care experiences can affect the intellectual development of disadvantaged children (as measured by the Stanford-Binet intelligence scale and the McCarthy scales of children's ability for the older children) in a positive direction.

* Non-school-based/university operator and community agency operator/urban.

Caldwell, Bettye M. (1981), "Day Care and the Schools", Theory into Practice, 20 (2): 121-129. Writing as both a parent and professional Caldwell describes the Kramer Project, an extended day school, in Little Rock, Arkansas. The program emphasized parent involvement, student teacher training in the extended day environment, and research.

* School-based/school board and community agency operator (?)/urban.

Caldwell, Betty M. (1986), "Day Care and the Public Schools-Natural Allies, Natural Enemies", Educational Leadership, (February): 34-40. An update of the Kramer Project (Caldwell, 1981).

* School-based/school board and community agency operator (?)/urban.

Carlson, Nancy A., Whiren, Alice and Howe, Donna (1980), "After-Kindergarten Day Care: A Challenge to the Community", Young Children, 36 (1): 13-20. The authors report on two, half-day after-kindergarten program for five year old children who attend school in the morning only. In total, forty-three children from middle class families were involved in the two centres. Parents' reasons for choosing these centres included convenience (transportation, hours), centres' reputations, the programs, and the continuity of trusted relationships between families and the centres. Difficulties encountered in program planning are discussed.

* Non-school-based/employer and community agency operated/urban.

Cochran, Moncrieff M. and Gunnarsson, Lars (1985), "A Follow-up of Group Day Care and Family-Based Childrearing Patterns", Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47 (2): 297-309. One hundred and two five-year old Swedish children living in Gothenburg comprised the sample for a longitudinal study looking into the relationship between care settings (home

and centre) and selected development characteristics. The main findings are that over the four year period of the research, 1) family situations of both home- and centre-based children changed and that these changes must be considered in detail because they affect family options, potential and plans, 2) girls were better developed socially than boys regardless of setting, 3) centre-based boys from two-parent families were socially more advanced than boys from one-parent homes,and 4) the expectations and socialization of boys differs from girls in both the centres and home settings.

* Non-school-based/operator unspecified/urban.

Davis, Joseph and Solomon, Phyllis (1980), "Day Care Needs Among the Upper Middle Classes", Child Welfare, 59 (8): 497-500. An American upper middle class suburb was used to look at the child care needs and preferences of a social group not often looked at as closely or as often as low income groups. The authors found that the most popular form of care is having someone come into one's own home and that child care centres are the least used or desired choice. It is noted that these families can better afford more expensive forms of child care than many families and that government policy should encourage a diversity of child care arrangements. The study suffers from among other things, a failure to differentiate between school-aged care and others, attempting to apply their conclusions universally.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/suburban

Doxey, Isobel (1986), Case Studies of Day-Care Centres (Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education). ON03694. A recent look at four types of child care centres in Ontario (three urban, one rural), finds them all working with financial constraints of one kind or another, eg. high capital and operating costs, and salaries not commensurate with the work

or hours. The four programs are described in terms licensing, funding, programs, parental involvement and satisfaction.

* School-based and non-school-based/school board operator, employer operator, commercial operator/urban and rural.

Esbensen, Steen B. (1985), "The Effects of Day Care on Children, Families and Communities: A Review of the Research Findings", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 187-252 (Ottawa: Status of Women). A relatively current review of the research on child care and it's effects on children, families and communities. Esbensen concludes that, "Unlike previous reviews of the literature on this topic..., the research findings are generalizable for the field of early childhood education and that good day care has positive effects on the development of children, the well-being of the family and the short- and long-term quality of life in the community". Most of the research centres on only the youngest school-aged children. An annotated bibliography is provided.

Fandetti, Donald V. (1976), "Day Care in Working Class Ethnic Neighborhoods: Implications for Social Policy", Child Welfare, 55 (9): 618-626. The study looks at the care arrangements made for 3-5 year old children of Polish and Italian extraction living in Baltimore, Maryland. Although largely exploratory in nature, the findings are interesting and include: 1) grandparents were first choice followed by child care centres; 2) the first choice of an operator for the child care centres was the Catholic Church followed by the Welfare Department (Schools and profit-making providers were unpopular options); 3) the presence of "fellow ethnic children" was not an important consideration); and 4) most respondents were not negatively predisposed towards teachers from outside the neighborhood. Fandetti concludes, "that the competent and well trained adult, engaged in sectarian-sponsored child care is likely to be accepted, regardless of ethnic group background or roots outside the ethnic neighborhood".

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/ ethnic.

Farel, Anita M. (1984), "Parents' Preferences and Needs", Children Today, 13 (2): 29-31. An exploratory study which finds that parental concerns for school-aged children cuts across race, gender, residential location, economic and employment status. Farel lists a number of barriers to participation including cost and transportation for low income families and rural families, and lack of time and unsafe locations for high income families. Many parents simply did not possess adequate information regarding after-school options.

Florida House of Representatives (1985), Status of School-Age Child Care in Florida (1985). (Tallahassee, FL: Committee on Education, K-12, Florida House of Representatives). ED 262 891. A status report based on a statewide survey resulting in a series of recommendations of school-aged child care. The committee which prepared the report listed a number of beliefs which are obstacles to school-aged care: 1) it is a luxury for which parents should pay, 2) child care devalues family life, 3) it is a local issue and not a state one, 4) schools are over-burdened now, 5) guidelines and policies are not well defined, 6) programs may be too custodial or too academic for school-aged children, 7) issue of liability has not been addressed and 8) it represents unfair competition for private operators. In addition, the committee made a number of recommendations that the state should: 1) encourage a diversity of program types and local options, 2) encourage local initiatives, 3) establish an information exchange network to provide expertise and

assistance to the feasibility of creating a single, easily accessed source of seed money, 5) encourage a sliding fee scale for parents, 6) encourage the use of existing facilities, and 7) look into alternative ways of funding programs for low and low-middle income users.

Friendly, Martha and Corea, Larry (1986), The Use of Recreation Programs for Childcare for School-Aged Children: An Evaluation of a North York Pilot Project (North York, Ont: North York Inter Agency and Community Council). This report describes the background, development and implementation of a program intended to add a child care component to non-school-based recreation programs for school-aged child care. Site characteristics were collected for fifteen programs, including data on users, usage patterns, staff, facilities, activities, and parent and community involvement. The findings of the survey were translated into policy recommendations aimed at the municipalities, agencies and the provincial and federal governments.
* Non-school-based/community agency operator/urban.

Fuqua, Robert W. and Labensohn, Dorothy (1986), "Parents as Consumers of Child Care", Family Relations, 35 (2): 295-303. The authors draw an interesting conclusion regarding parents as child care service consumers; that social (and family) changes today are so rapid that many are unable to function as wise consumers when the need arises (although they believe they can) and that resources are not available to help them do so. Also, the range, accessibility and affordability of care is a problem. Satisfaction with the child care arrangement was found to be related to parental control and input into the care their children received.
* Non-school-based/operator unspecified/urban-rural unspecified.

Galambos, Nancy L. and Garbarino, James (1983), "Identifying the Missing Links in the Study of Latchkey Children", Children Today, 12 (4): 2-4 and 40-41. An overview of the latchkey phenomenon followed by a discussion of a rural-based research project. The researchers' findings indicate that latchkey children living in a rural area which is relatively safe are no more or less socially and academically adjusted than children supervised by an adult.
*School-based(?)/school board operator(?)/rural.

Gold, Delores and Andres, David (1978), "Comparisons of Adolescent Children with Employed and Nonemployed Mothers", Merril-Palmer Quarterly, 24 (4): 243-254. This study sought to examine the relationship of alternate employment to the development of adolescent children of different sex and class backgrounds living in Montreal. One of the researchers' reported findings is that the differences in social and academic adjustment between children who are supervised and those who are not is insignificant.
*Non-school-based/operator unspecified/urban.

Goldfine, Eleanor and Wagner, Mary Lou (1987). A Study of the Effectiveness of a Latchkey Program in Middletown, Township, Brookdale Community College. ED 285 646. This study was shortened considerably when the programs were discontinued because of a shortage of funds. However, the authors felt it was worthwhile to report on the data which was collected as a pre-test. Noteworthy findings include the perception of parents that the program was useful as an enrichment opportunity for their child as opposed to serving a strictly babysitting function; that parents held high expectations for the program; and lower income parents are less positive about their children's social functioning and academic abilities and would have benefitted from the continuation of the program.

Gosling, Arthur (1987), Extended Day Child Care: Understanding and Addressing the New Demographics (Paper presented at the Convention of the American Association of School Administrators). ED 288 647. This article describes an after- and before-school child care program established in Arlington, Virginia in 1969. Five areas are examined; funding, time scheduling, the program, staffing and facilities. Because the schools operate AM and PM kindergartens, child care is actually provided from 7 am to 6 pm. The program is more an extension of the home than an extension of the school curriculum. Funding has two sources; parent fees (based on income, number of children enrolled and attendance) and a community activities fund (which is budgeted for at the county level but administered by the schools). The programs have supervisors but principals have ultimate responsibility for their child care programs. The obvious connection between school and child care centre encourages parent involvement.

Harris, Oliver C. (1977), "Day Care: the School-Age Child", Child Welfare, 56 (7): 440-448. Sixty-six working mothers in Denver, Colorado were interviewed to establish parents' attitudes about child rearing and to see if these attitudes, together with family characteristics, influenced the arrangements they made for the care of their school-aged children. Most mothers were not as concerned about before-school care presumably because they thought school-aged children could get to school themselves. However, there was a strong interest in after-school care with a preference for group care over family day care homes or care provided by relatives. The authors recommend that school-aged care be included in day care centre programs, that school facilities be used and that subsidized care is essential for most working mothers.
*School-based and non-school-based/operators unspecified/urban.

Howes, Carollee; Olenick, Michael and Der-Kiureghian, Tagoush (1987). "After-School Child Care in an Elementary School: Social Development and Continuity and Complementarity of Programs", The Elementary School Journal, 88 (1): 93-103. The social experiences and development of thirty kindergarten children enrolled in an after-school program were assessed. Children who attended the after-school program were more likely to be nominated as friends in a sociometric interview than non-participants. The authors conclude that the after-school experiences were both complementary and continuous with the school experiences of the children. They recommend that the after-school to school relationship be strengthened further by increasing joint planning time.

* School-based/school board operator (?)/urban-rural unspecified.

Kuchak, Joann; Murphy, Maureen; Altman, Amy; Brandis, Margaret; Cusgrove, Michael and Saavedra, Pedro (1983), School-Age Day Care Study, Final Report (Silver Spring, MD: Applied Management Sciences, Inc.). ED 242 411. An examination of school-aged (5-14 years) child care in Minnesota and Virginia found that school-based extended day programs were successful models of care. Some of the benefits to be derived were that parents were more likely to be involved and that parents liked the fact that school-based programs had educational content and were convenient because they shared the same facility. Child care is paid for by parent fees and local government funding. Parents who had children in employer-assisted child care said that they stayed longer at their jobs because of it. Some employers offered alternate work schedules, sick child leave, administration of a centre on or near the work place, the purchase or subsidization of child care places with local providers and a "cafeteria plan" for employee benefits where workers can select from a menu of options, eg. vacation time, profit-sharing, child care, etc. Self- and sibling care were the least satisfactory arrangements for school-aged children. One of the few reports which explicitly notes urban-suburban-rural differences. For example, in Virginia, rural parents' preferred mode of care was by the mother City residents preferred to have their children cared for by a relative in the relative's home and suburban parents' most popular choice was school-based care.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/urban-suburban-rural.

Kuiken, Jake (1985), School-Age Child Care, (Manuscript). A well articulated comprehensive report on school-aged child care in Canada including specific mentions of municipalities in Alberta and Ontario. Kuiken discusses the kinds of issues which are important to school-aged programs and which may be different from preschool and other arrangements. He also, mentions other care arrangements ranging from family day homes to recreational programs to phonefriends to self-care, the latter benefitting from a relatively thorough discussion of its main characteristics.

* Various locations/various operators/urban and rural unspecified.

Kuiken, Jake (1987), Latchkey Children, Report to the Special Committee on Child Care (Manuscript). This paper constitutes a balanced, detailed look at latchkey children in Canada, the history, the literature, the need, the options, current solutions, and the "ideal" solution(s). It is the only examination of the phenomenon as it occurs in Canada; each of the provinces, the Northwest Territories and the Yukon is presented in turn. Similarly, Kuiken describes a number of school-aged programs which have unique and helpful features to offer. Ultimately, Kuiken advocates a child care infrastructure whose components are based on comprehensiveness, compatibility and co-operation; school-aged care would be one part of the model.

* Various locations/various operators/urban and rural unspecified.

Leherer, Evelyn (1983), "Determinants of Child Care Mode Choice: An Economic Perspective", Social Science Research, 12 (1): 69-80. This study examines several economic determinants of child care selections for families. Although limited by the fact that only two-parent families are sampled (N=1124), it is one of a relatively few studies with a quantitative focus. The researcher finds that parents of very young children (0-3 years) do not favor informal or personal forms of care, for 3-6 year olds, the reliance is on child care centres as opposed to a relative, and for 6-12 year old, the after-school hours are supervised by a relative or babysitter rather than a centre. Large families tend to rely more on babysitters and relatives because of economies of scale advantages, ie. a babysitter is paid X dollars to tend to two children or one, but a centre charges up to twice the cost of a single child. Parental income is a good predictor of child care choice, eg. high income earners rely more on centres and babysitters and less on relatives. Affiliation with the Catholic Church is correlated with care by relatives rather than by centres or babysitters.

* Non-school-based/operator unspecified/urban-rural unspecified.

Lero, D.S. (1985), "Parents' Needs, Preferences, and Concerns About Child Care: Case Studies of 336 Canadian Families", in Series 5, Child Care Needs of Parents and Families, Report of the Task Force on Child Care pp. 22-113 (Ottawa: Status of Women). A national survey of the child care needs, preferences and concerns of over three hundred Canadian families living across Canada (eight provinces). Among her findings are that 1) these families sought care for their children for a variety of reasons (eg. while parent works or attend school, for special needs children, for social and educational enrichment and during emergencies); 2) full-time non-maternal care is required by 51% of families with children 2-5 years of age and 57% of families with children 6-12 years of age; 3) regular part-time care is required by 23% of families with 2-5 year old and by 23% of those with school-aged children; 4) and before- and after-school programs were used by approximately 15% of the families with school-aged children, usually by families with full-time working mothers.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/urban and rural.

Levine, James A. (1978), Day Care and the Public Schools: Profiles of Five Communities (Newton, MA: Education Development Centre). The author concludes from his examination of five diverse American communities that public school systems should not be the exclusive sponsor of child care programs but that they play a part with other agencies in responding to unique local needs. He advocates a pluralistic approach to planning a national child care policy.

Levine, James A. and Seltzer, Michelle (1980), "Why Are These Children Staying After School?", Redbook, (September). An overview of school-based school-aged child care with emphasis placed on programs in Arlington, Virginia (See also, Applied Management Sciences Inc., 1983 and Kuchak, et al 1983), Denver, Colorado; and Brookline, Massachusetts (See also, Seligson 1980).

* School-based/school board operator/urban.

Long, Thomas J. and Long, Lynette (1981), "Latchkey Children: The Child's View of Self Care", ED 211 229. An often referred to piece of research on latchkey children. The authors who acknowledge the difficulty of generalizing their findings to

other settings (theirs were black, urban, parochial school), found that self care children experienced more anxiety but were more independent than children cared for by siblings. Children supervised by an adult experienced less anxiety but were also, less independent.

* Location not applicable/operator not applicable/urban.

Marx, Fern and Seligson, Michelle (1988), The Public School Early Childhood Study: The State Survey (New York, NY: Bank Street College of Education). This is the first in the Bank Street College of Education three volume set reporting (on a two and a half year study on public school programs for prekindergarten children. See Mitchell (1988a and 1988b). Each of the fifty states and the District of Columbia are described in terms of their prekindergarten programs, child care services and other initiatives such as Head Start (eg. national, funding operators, licensing details, etc.). Also, each state's efforts at providing school-aged care are presented as a "working parents" issue.

Mayesky, Mary E. (1979), "Extended Day Program in a Public Elementary School", Children Today, 8 (3): 6-9. The first of several articles contributed by Mayesky chronicling the development of the Phillips Extended-Day Magnet School, Raleigh, North Carolina. She describes the salient characteristics of the program including discussions of the budget and parent involvement.

* School-based/non-profit, school board operated/urban.

Mayesky, Mary E. (1980a), "A Study of Academic Effectiveness in a Public School Day-Care Program", Phi Delta Kappan, (December): 284-285. One of the few studies incorporating standardized reading and math tests into the evaluation of a school-aged child care program. Children at the Phillips Extended-Day Magnet School in Raleigh, North Carolina, are provided with activity-based cognitive, affective and

psychomotor learning experiences. The children are multi-age grouped. The child care staff works closely with the school's regular classroom teachers resulting in curriculum continuity, explicitly designed to enrich the elementary curriculum. Researchers found significant differences between extended-day participants and non-participants in reading and math but because of the lack of a control, could not conclude that the program alone accounted for the variables in the program resulted in the differences. Surveyed parents also indicted high levels of satisfaction with the program.

* School-based/non-profit, operator unspecified/urban.

Mayesky, Mary E. (1980b), "Differences in Reading and Math-Grades 1-3, as Measured in Phillips Extended Day" (Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Association of School Administrators, Anaheim, CA, February 18, 1980). ED 184 675. Details of the statistical analyses summarized in Mayesky (1980) are presented.

* School-based/non-profit, operator unspecified/urban.

McCartney, Kathleen (1984), "Effect of Quality of Day Care Environment on Children's Language Development", Developmental Psychology, 20 (2): 244-260. Essentially an addendum to McCartney, Scarr, Phillips and Grajek (1985), McCartney looks at the relationship between the quality of care for 3-5 year old and language development. A thirty-seven item scale was completed for nine Bermudan day care centres. Observations were made of 166 children interacting with peers and teachers. Also, they completed the revised Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, the Preschool Language Assessment Instrument and the Adaptive Language Inventory. The author concludes that overall centre quality is positively related with intellectual and language development. Also, verbal interaction with caregivers is more beneficial than speaking with peers.

* Non-school-based/profit and non-profit operators/urban-rural unspecified.

McCartney, Kathleen; Scarr, Sandra; Phillips, Deborah and Grajek, Susan (1985), "Day Care as Intervention: Comparisons of Varying Quality Programs", Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 6 (2 and 3): 247-260. The authors examine a high quality non-profit child care centre in Bermuda as a model for compensatory intervention for disadvantaged children. The control group consists of children in eight privately operated centres. The findings indicate that the children in the non-profit centre have better language skills and are socially more mature than the children in the reference group. However, the reporting of the methodology is superficial. For example, only two of the thirty-seven characteristics on which the centres are measured are given (quality of furnishings and amount of creative activities) so that the reader cannot determine how relevant the measures are, if there are redundancies or how they are scaled (if at all). The authors identify another related limitation caused by relying on a global index of quality. The age of the sample is also vaguely defined as "3 years or older". Nonetheless, the results suggest that measurable gains can be made for disadvantaged children throughout the intervention of quality child care programs.

* Non-school-based/project and non-profit operators/urban -rural unspecified.

McMurray, Georgia L. and Kazanjian, Dolores P. (1982). "Day-Care and the Working Poor: The Struggle for Self-Sufficiency", (New York, NY: Community Service Society for New York). ED 221 226. A follow-up study of more than two hundred inner city New York families who were terminated from public day care support in 1979 and followed-up on three years later. The report focuses on ways in which the poor cope when key public supports such as child care are withdrawn.

*Non-school-based/operator unspecified/inner city.

Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (1987). Public Schools and School-Age Child Care: Making it Happen!, (Jefferson City, MO: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education). ED 290 553. A "how to" on setting up school-based school-aged child care based on a state-wide survey of about five hundred programs. It looks at three stages of opening a centre program initiation, program administration and program implementation. These sections are detailed and offer samples of needs assessment instruments, job descriptions for staff and questions to be at the interviews, program evaluation checklist, etc.

* School-based/school board operated(?)/urban-rural unspecified.

Mitchell, Anne (1988a), The Public School Early Childhood Study: The District Survey (New York, NY: Bank Street College of Education). This is the second in the Bank Street College of Education three volume set reporting on a two and half year study on public school programs for prekindergarten children. See Mitchell (1988b) and Marx and Seligson (1988). This report presents data from a survey of almost seventeen hundred U.S. public school districts and their prekindergarten programs (eg. number and ages of children served; hours, days and year length; ratios and group sizes; funding; costs; eligibility criteria; staffing, hiring and salaries; and accommodations to working parents. The respondents were school superintendents.

Mitchell, Anne (1988b), The Public School Early Childhood Study: The Case Studies (New York, NY: Bank Street College of Education). This is the third in the Bank Street College of Education three volume set reporting on a two and a half year study on public school programs for prekindergarten children. See Marx and Seligson (1988) and Mitchell

(1988a). Thirteen case studies from twelve states representing a good cross-section of program types are presented. Although the author intends to answer three questions 1) are public school early childhood programs developmentally appropriate for the children participating in them? 2) Do these programs meet the child care needs of the families that use them? and 3) What is the relationship between public school programs and the local early childhood community?, the details of any evaluative process are barely touched upon.

* School-based/school board operated/urban, suburban and rural.

Moilanen, Carolyn and Mitchell, Stephanie (1986), School Age Child Care in the Portland Public Schools, 1985-86, Evaluation Report (Portland, OR: Research and Evaluation Dept., Portland Public Schools). ED 272 326. Reports on six school-aged pilot projects operated cooperatively with non-profit community agencies and parent groups. Authors concluded 1) that policy and program guidelines are necessary to insure effective co-ordination among the child care programs, sponsoring agencies and the school board. Also, because school-based programs are perceived by the community as "school programs" it is appropriate that the school board exert some control in these areas. 2) Designate an administrator to direct long-term planning and short-term operation of programs. 3) Programs should be monitored and future expansion should be based on needs assessments.

* School-based/parent board operated, community agency operated/urban.

Moore, John C. Jr. (1980), "Parent Choice of Day Care Services", (Washington, DC: Day Care Council of America, Inc.). ED 192 871. A national (U.S.) sample of parents with at least one 2-6 year old in care for at least ten hours per week comprised the sample for this survey. The main findings include: 1) no relationship exists between income and the amount of care used (the choice of care is more related to values than economics), 2) that schools reduce the amount of care required but the increase in mothers employed means an increased need for before- and after-school care.

* School-based and non-school-based/operators unspecified/ urban-rural unspecified.

Neufeldt, Aldred; Ferguson, Elizabeth; Friendly, Martha and Stephens, Mona (1984), Choices, Options and Directions for School-Age Child Care (Toronto, Ont: Metro Toronto Children's Advisory Group). This comprehensive look at school-aged child care in Metropolitan Toronto uses a fairly generous definition of care so that after four programs, recreation and leisure programs, private child care arrangements, licensed day nurseries and supervised private home day care are included. Relevant legislation, users, usage patterns, successful child care models from Canada and the United States and program/policy options are presented. The authors advocate a diverse range of care options with a solid core of licensed programs.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/ urban-rural unspecified.

Ohio Historical Society (1988), Childcare in Oregon: Emerging Solutions (Columbus, OH: Ohio Historical Society). ED 292 588. A report prepared for the Oregon Commission on Child Care. This is a look at all facets of child care with policy recommendations directed at the state level. With regard to school-aged care, they found that while some school districts had successful programs many others did not citing disruption of classrooms, objections by school staff, liability problems and lack of need as reasons for not developing similar programs. For non-school-based care, transportation is seen as a problem.

* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/

urban-rural unspecified.

Papadopoulos, Antonis (1988), The Contact School Plan: Visit to the Swedish Contact School (Faanskolan, Falkenbert), (Strasbourg, France: Council for Cultural Cooperation). ED 288 646. This is a study for a Swedish project school where children are not grouped by age or ability but rather by unit; each unit consists of a nursery department, junior and intermediate classes with its own staff including teachers, recreational leaders, kitchen and cleaning staff. The nursery school provides 47 child care spaces, 18 part-time day nursery spaces and 30 spaces for 7-12 year old who need supervision outside of school hours. Through attention to 1) school climate, 2) building and equipment, 3) the children's affective and cognitive development and 4) parental involvement, observers noted that children were outwardly healthy and happy and exhibited high levels of social and emotional development creativity and individualism. Also, the observer noted the importance of the headmaster's role in setting the tone of the school. The only cautionary note was that perhaps the curriculum was too child-centred and that a little more structure would be useful.

* School-based/demonstration project, operator unknown/ small urban.

Parker, Barbara (1981), "School-Sponsored Day Care: A Great Idea That'll Make You a Hero", The American School Journal (October): 36-38. A report on the efforts being made in St. Louis Park, Minnesota to provide school-based child care. Motivated initially by declining enrollments and vacant classrooms, both educators and parents are now ardent supporters of school-based care. Parker offers 13 reasons for placing child care programs in schools including 1) the use of vacant space, 2) helping schools serve more of the community's needs, 3) reducing vandalism, 4) providing

qualitatively better care than custodial programs, and 5) demonstrating to the community that the schools care.

Pasterski, Beth (nd), "After School Day Care" (Manuscript). A very brief and sketchy overview of school-aged school-based child care in Metropolitan Toronto (Toronto, Scarborough and North York).

Pence, Alan R. and Goelman, Hillel (1987), "Silent Partners: Parents of Children in Three Types of Day Care", Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 2: 103-118. The authors look at the "parents-children-caregivers triad" to establish parental preferences and attitudes toward their present child care arrangements and other options, the characteristics and satisfaction with the caregiver and parental attitudes towards employment, working mothers and desired changes in child care services. While the conclusion may seem self-evident, the authors found that care users tend to prefer the kind of care they select for their children. Users are less distinguishable by socio-economic factors than by caregiving philosophies and values. Ultimately, the authors conclude that child care selection is more a "best fit" than a "best" arrangement, and that each family has a unique "best fit".
* Non-school-based/various operators/urban.

Powell, Douglas R. and Widdows, Richard (1987), "School and Economic Factors Associated with Parents' Decisions About After-School Child Care: An Exploratory Study in a Medium-Sized Community", Child and Youth Care Quarterly, 16 (4): 272-282. An exploratory study (N=41) of the associations between social and economic factors and after-school care arrangements of parents. A number of findings emerged: 1) parents were more likely to place girls in self-care situations than boys who were more likely to be in group care; 2) child satisfaction is an important consideration to

parents' choice of care arrangement; 3) parents relying on self-care were not happy with the arrangement but were not prepared to change (this may be partly logistical since many were rural families); 4) those who use centres believe that they help their child develop skills and knowledge which would be difficult to acquire otherwise (which may also, be true of rural families' preference for self-care to develop independence); 5) neighborhood variables were not as important to parents living in smaller urban centres or in rural areas; and 6) costs were more important to low income families but were not the overriding factor for anyone in the study.

* School-based and non-school-based/operators unspecified/small urban-rural.

Powers, David A. and Anderson, Patricia J. (1986), An Examination of After School Care in North Carolina Public Schools, (East Carolina University). ED 281 630. A Statewide survey found that 48 after school care programs were offered in the 141 public school systems. Those without programs cited costs, availability of personnel, concerns about conflicts with private operators and a lack of need. 57% of the program served handicapped children. 71% of the schools enjoyed increasing enrollments. Programs are loosely structured pre-planned daily schedules including time for homework (94%), snacks (88%), free play (85%), phys ed (75%), tutorial help (65%), quiet time (54%) and direct instruction (48%). 85% had special events like field trips, computers, counselling and gymnastics. The most common staff child ratios were 1:15 and 1:10. When programs were administered centrally, the role of administrator fell to the community schools director; otherwise to the principal, surveys of parents, teachers and students were positive towards after-school care program.

* School-based/various operators/urban-rural unspecified.

Rodman, Hyman, Pratto, David J. and Nelson, Rosemary Smith (1985), "Child Care Arrangements and Children's Functioning: A Comparison of Self-Care and Adult-Care Children", Developmental Psychology, 21 (3): 413-418. Two groups of forty-eight fourth and seventh graders were matched on age, sex, race, family composition and SES. The authors found no statistically significant differences on measures of social and psychological functional between self-care children and those cared for by a parent or grandparent. The researcher take pains to describe the limitations of their study, eg. small sample and that neither the screening questionnaire or interview asked for length of time in the current child care arrangement or about prior arrangements.

Rubin, Victor and Medrich, Elliott A. (1979), "Child Care, Recreation and the Fiscal Crisis", The Urban and Social Change Review, 12 (1): 22-28. A useful look at older school-aged children and their parents living in inner city Oakland, California where extended day programs are successful models of care. Some of the benefits to be derived were that parents were more likely to be involved and that the parents liked the fact that school-based programs had educational content and were convenient because they shared the same facility. Child care is paid for by parent fees and local government funding. Parents who had children in employer-assisted child care said that they stayed longer at their jobs because of it. Some employers offered alternate work schedules, sick child leave, administration of a centre on or near the work place, the purchase or subsidization of child care places with local providers and a "cafeteria plan" for employee benefits where workers can select from a menu of options, eg. vacation time, profit-sharing, child care, etc. Self- and sibling-care were the least satisfactory arrangements for school-aged children.

"School Age Day Care: Designing an Effective Structure". Child Care Information Exchange, #13 (April, 1980): 27-32. This article looks at the advantages and disadvantages of six different school-aged child care models: 1) by schools in schools, 2) by community agencies in schools, 3) by community agencies in non-school sites, 4) by independent operators, 5) recreational programs, and 6) by family child care providers in their homes. A survey of 14 centres resulted in four key factors in operating an effective program; 1) parent involvement, 2) child-centred philosophy, 3) transportation if required and 4) maximum utilization of physical and financial resources.

* school-based and non-school-based/various operators/urban-rural unspecified.

SPR Associates Inc. (1986), An Exploratory Review of Selected Issues in For-Profit Versus Not-For-Profit Child Care, (Toronto, Ont: SPR Associates Inc.). The major distinction made by the authors is between non-profit and profit-making child care centres. School-aged care is never explicitly mentioned but many of the issues and arguments hold true for older children as well. Much of the report is recommendation oriented with information drawn from extensive questionnaires for operators and other key informants in the child care field.

Steinberg, Laurence (1986), "Latchkey Children and Susceptibility to Peer Pressure: An Ecological Analysis", Developmental Psychology, 22 (4): 433-439. Steinberg finds that adolescents (aged 10-14 years) who are more removed from adult supervision are more susceptible to peer pressure to engage in antisocial activity. Although the number of children engaged in school-based after-school activities was too small to include in the statistical analysis, the trend is clear for the other care modes and it is tempting to extrapolate to the school-based model. At the very least,

it points to an area for further research.
* School-based/school board operator (?)/suburban.

Turner, Pauline H. and Gallegos, Beverly (1984), "A Comparison of the Day-Care Needs, Attitudes, and Practices of Intact and Single-Parent Families", Journal of Employment Counselling, 21 (1): 19-30. The authors compare the child care needs, attitudes and practices of two and single-parent families. While there are a number of differences between the two groups of parents, several consistent patterns emerge: 1) parents value convenience to work/home, quality of care and cleanliness; 2) cost is a problem for most parents but particularly for single parents; 3) centres need to offer a wider range of support services to parents; and 4) parents need to be better informed abut the options open to them.
* Non-school-based/operator unspecified or family day care/urban-rural unspecified.

Woodhead, Martin (1985), "Preschool Education has Long-Term Effects but can they be Generalized?" Oxford Review of Education, 11 (2): 133-155. A critique of North American preschool compensatory intervention programs and their applicability to the United Kingdom.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS AND REPORTS

Baker, Maureen (1985), Child Care Services in Canada (Ottawa, Ont: Research Branch, Library of Parliament). Baker provides historical overviews of child care in Canada and the United States, followed by brief sections dealing with current needs, usage patterns, costs, child care in other countries and the effects on children.

Bates, Helene Blais (1984), "Day Care Standards in Canada", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-70 (Ottawa: Status of Women). One of a series of background papers prepared for the Task Force on child care. Bates's paper focuses on centre and family day care standards, licensing requirements, staff qualifications and regulatory bodies providing information on a province-by-province basis.

Bergsteinson, Dawne and Miezitis, Solveiga (1986). Studies of Three Preprimary Centres (Toronto, Ont: Ministry of Education). ONO4159. This report provides descriptions of three centres in the city of York, Ontario. Each centre is described in terms of location, facilities, funding, program/service and adult/community involvement but the study is of marginal interest because there is little analysis done of the information.

Blain, Christine (1985), "Government Spending on Child Care in Canada", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the task Force on Child Care, pp. 166-231, (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author looks at the financial support provided by the Provinces/Territories and Federal Government for child care. The impact of the level of support on families of different socio-economic groups is also examined. Issues investigated include taxation schemes, the Canada Assistance Plan, subsidization, special needs children, etc. Provincial figures and summaries are given.

Canadian Teachers' Federation (1981), The Integration of Day Care and Out-of-School-Hours Programs into the Public Education Sector (Ottawa, Ont: Canadian Teachers' Federation). A discussion paper prepared by the Canadian Teachers' Federation advocating that school-aged child care programs be offered before and after school, during lunch hour seven days a week including holidays; that parents be involved in programs; that programs be available to all children up to at least twelve years of age; and that child care be funded with public monies not presently assigned to the education budget.

Chenier Nancy Miller (1984), "Toward Universality: An Historical Overview of the Evolution of Education, Health Care, Day Care and Maternity Leave", in Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-36 (Ottawa: Status of Women). This paper provides a historical summary of four related social services (education, health, day care and maternity leave) from 1867-1967.

Chenier, Nancy Miller (1985), "The Informal Child Care Market: Public Policy for Private Homes", Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 150-186 (Ottawa: Status of Women). One of a series of background papers prepared for the Task Force on Child care. Chenier's paper focuses on informal child care primarily in Canada but internationally as well. The results of a literature survey regarding the beneficial or detrimental aspects of this form of care are inconclusive; and annotated bibliography is included.

Childcare Resource and Research Unit (1988), "Childcare in Canada: A Key Federal Policy Issue" (Toronto, Ont: Childcare Resource and Research Unit, University of Toronto.) A chronology of federal legislation affecting child care in Canada.

Cooke, Katie (1986), Report of the Task Force on Child Care (Ottawa, Ont: Status of Women, Canada). Based on the input of 7,000 parents, 200 submissions from interested organizations and federally published statistics, Cooke has prepared a detailed and comprehensive look at child care in Canada. In particular the report looks at the need for child care and parental leave as well as the adequacy of the current system. The report makes recommendations to the federal government regarding its role in the development of a national system of quality child care.

Downie, Pearl (1985), "Child Care Needs of Immigrants", in Series 5, Child Care Needs of Parents and Families, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-22 (Ottawa: Status of Women). This report constitutes a relatively rare look at the child care needs of immigrant families. Downie includes a number of Federal policy recommendations.

DPA Group (1984), "National Day Care Costing Model", in Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 37-82 (Ottawa: Status of Women). This report details the construction of a national child care costing model. The DPA Group estimates the cost of the current (1984) child care system in Canada and also, provides forecasts of the costs of a national system of care. School-aged children (6-12 years) are treated as a separate group.

Esbensen, Steen B. (1985), "The Effects of Day Care on Children, Families and Communities: A Review of the Research Findings,

Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 187-252 (Ottawa: Status of Women). A relatively current review of the research on child care and it's effects on children, families and communities. Esbensen concludes that, "Unlike previous reviews of the literature on this topic..., the research findings are generalizable for the field of early childhood education and that good day care has positive effects on the development of children, the well-being of the family and the short- and long-term quality of life in the community". Most of the research centres on only the youngest school-aged children. An annotated bibliography is provided.

Health and Welfare Canada (1978), Children with Special Needs in Day Care: A Guide to Integration (Ottawa, Ont: Health and Welfare Canada). Typical of most writing of a decade ago school-aged children are not mentioned. However, the issue today is much more evident and some of the concerns presented in this government report can be extended to an older population. Also, a report such as this can be profitably read as background to the present situation as described by Fink (1987a, 1987b and 1987c).

Health and Welfare Canada (1982), Day Care Spaces in Canada (Ottawa, Ont: National Day Care Information Centre, Health and Welfare Canada). A provincial breakdown of the number of child care spaces available. Some of the data are explicitly school-aged.

Health and Welfare Canada (1982), Provincial Day Care Requirements (Ottawa, Ont: National Day Care Information Centre, Health and Welfare Canada). A breakdown of the nutritional, space and minimum staff child ratio requirements in each province. Some of the data are explicitly for school-aged children.

Health and Welfare Canada (1982), Provincial Funding of Day Care Services (Ottawa, Ont: National Day Care Information Centre, Health and Welfare Canada). A breakdown of the child care funding arrangements in each Province. School-aged categories are provided in the tables.

Health and Welfare Canada (1987a), Sharing the Responsibility (Ottawa, Ont: Health and Welfare Canada). This document constitutes the federal response to the Report of the Special Committee on Child Care, viz. the National Strategy on Child Care.

Health and Welfare Canada (1987b), Status of Day Care in Canada, (Ottawa, Ont: National Health and Welfare Canada). A brief statistical summary of child care services in Canada. Some school-aged categories are provided in the tables.

Ledoux, Genevieve (1987), Child Care in Canada (Ottawa, Ont: Research Branch, Library of Parliament). A somewhat uneven look at child care in Canada, it does add to an economic understanding of what it costs to provide these services to Canadians and where these monies come from.

Lero, D.S. (1985), **"Parents' Needs, Preferences, and Concerns About Child Care: Case Studies of 336 Canadian Families", in Series 5, Child Careneeds of Parents and Families, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 23-113 (Ottawa: Status of Women).** A national survey of child care needs, preferences concerns of over three hundred Canadian families living across Canada (eight Provinces). Among their findings are that 1) these families sought care for their children for a variety of reasons (eg. while parent works or attends school, for special needs children, for social and educational enrichment and during emergencies); full-time non-maternal care required by 51% of families with children 2-5 years of age and 57% of families with children 6-12

years of age; regular part-time care is required by 23% of families with 2-5 year olds and by 23% of those with school-aged children; and before- and after-school programs were used by approximately 15% of the families with school-aged children, usually by families with full-time working mothers.
* School-based and non-school-based/various operators/urban and rural.

Lero, Donna S. and Kyle, Irene (1985), "Day Care Quality: Its Definition and Implementation", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality, Report of the task Force on Child Care, pp. 85-149 (Ottawa: Status of Women). Lero and Kyle examine the difficult question of defining quality in child care. To arrive at a working definition of quality they examine the literature, research and various perspectives on child care. They propose the following definition, "quality child care is care provided by knowledgeable, committed and sensitive caregivers in a milieu that supports their efforts to provide an optimal environment designed to foster children's well-being, development and competence. Care provided in this manner explicitly recognizes the needs of parents for caregiving that supports and strengthens their child-rearing efforts through effective and informative communication and mutual respect".

Ontario Ministry of Education and Ministry of Community and Social Services (1988), Child Care for School-Aged Children, (Toronto, Ont: Ministry of Education and Ministry of Community and Social Services). ON04779. A government document delineating the areas of responsibilities of the two ministries with regard to school-aged child care programs in Ontario.

Pence, Alan R. (1985), A Bibliography of Canadian Day Care Research, in Series 6 (Ottawa: Status of Women in Canada).

One of a series of studies commissioned by the Task Force on Child Care. A cross-section of sources are represented including government reports, articles, theses, academic studies and advocacy group papers. Not annotated or categorized.

Power, Delia J. and Brown, Mona G. (1984), "Child Care and Taxation in Canada: Who Pays"?, in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 38-84 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The authors give a detailed analysis of the ways in which the income tax act affects child care users. An argument is made for allowing a tax deduction for child care expenses.

Rose-Lizee, Ruth (1985), "A Proposal to Cost-Share Operating and Start-up Grants to Day Care Centers", Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 235-267 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The purpose of this paper is to estimate for a ten-year period, the cost of a proposal for the Federal Government to cost-share two new types of grants; flat-rate operating grants and start-up grants to licensed, non-profit day care spaces. In addition, a proposal to revise the Canada Assistance Plan which provides subsidies to low-income families is offered.

Rothman Beach Associates (1985),"A Study of Work-Related Day Care in Canada", in Series 4, Child Care: The Employer's Role, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 58-138 (Ottawa: Status of Women). Based on extensive interviews with about half of the seventy-nine programs operating at the end of 1984 and interviews with provincial officers, the authors provide descriptions of work-related child care programs in canada including, costs, funding, age groups served, utilization rates, etc.

Schom-Moffatt, Patti (1984), "The Bottom Line: Wages and Working

Conditions of Workers in the Formal Day Care Market", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 85-150 (Ottawa: Status of Women). This study describes the wages and working conditions of employees in licensed group day care centres and of providers of licensed family day care.

Sweeney, Hon. John (nd), New Directions for Child Care (Toronto, Ont: Ministry of Community and Social Services). A mid 80s policy paper by the Minister of Community and Social Services outlining his Ministry's child care initiatives for Ontario. Included are 1) provisions for new schools to have child care spaces, 2) the financing of pilot projects for school-aged children, and 3) continuation of support to four rural child care pilot projects and preparation of a report on rural child care needs and preferences.

Stotsky, Karen (1985), "An Overview of Some Federal-Provincial Fiscal Arrangements and Proposed Options for Financing a System of Child Care in Canada", in Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 83-103 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author looks at Federal-Provincial fiscal arrangements where federal contributions are made to programs which fall under provincial jurisdictions. The report concludes by offering options for the financing of a child care system.

Thomson, Tamra L. (1985a), "Enforcement of Provincial Day Care Standards", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 71-84 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author provides a brief description of Provincial statutes governing child care in each Province. In addition, she lists responsible bodies and methods of enforcement.

Thomson, Tamara L. (1985b), "Municipal Initiatives in Child Care", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 151-165 (Ottawa: Status of Women). In examining the role of municipalities in providing child care Thomson finds that local governments are often the provider of last resort. Provinces tend to delegate responsibilities to municipalities because the latter knows the needs of the community but often the monetary support from the province is inadequate. Thomson sees the municipalities as filling the gaps left by private operators. Some data for Ontario are presented.

Tienhaara, Nancy (1985), "Job Creation in the Child Care Industry", in Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 104-234 (Ottawa: Status of Women). Tienhaara examines the current models used by the Federal Government to estimate the number of jobs created in the child care field and concludes that they are inappropriate for dealing with an industry as small as this one with its unique characteristics. She postulates a new model based on supply, demand and government funding.

Toronto Board of Education (1988), Sharing the Challenge: Child Care in Toronto Schools (Toronto, Ont: Toronto Board of Education). The report defines the official policy of the Toronto Board of Education towards child care, emphasizing areas such as local community and parent "ownership" of programs, the complementarity of schools and child care, and home and school links.

Toronto Board of Education (1989), Response to Proposed Ministry of Education Direction for Child Care (manuscript). The Toronto Board of Education generally supports the Ministry of Education's latest initiative in child care. Seven

Ministry proposals are responded to, disagreement occurring only in those involving financing or costs.

Townson, Monica (1985a), "Financing Child Care Through the Canada Assistance Plan", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-37 (Ottawa: Status of Women). Towson looks at the question of funding child care services through the Canada Assistance Plan (CAP). She includes Federal-Provincial cost-sharing under CAP, and problems and policy issues raised by the difficulties experienced under the Canada Assistance Plan. In addition, Townson describes the different ways the Provinces use CAP. She concludes that CAP is not able to meet the needs of low-income families for child care.

Townson, Monica (1985b), "Paid Parental Leave Policies", in Series 4, Child Care: The Employer's Role, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-57 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author looks at the situation internationally. For the Canadian case, she recommends that a national system of fully paid parental leave can be achieved through the expansion of the maternity benefits program available under the Unemployment Insurance Act. Townson concludes that Canada has one of the least progressive policies in this area.

Women's Bureau (1981), Workplace Child Care: A Background Paper, (Toronto: Ont: Ministry of Labour). The paper briefly presents the workplace child care situations in eighteen countries including Canada. Although workplace programs are seen as part of the solution, most parents favour community-based care where children can develop friendships within the community. Obstacles to on-site centres include noise and pollution in some cases. Guidelines for employers and unions are included.
* Non-school-based/employer operated/urban.

Women's Bureau (1982), "Women in the Labour Force 'Child Care'", No. 4 (Toronto, Ont: Ministry of Labour). A presentation of selected data from Statistics Canada, defining the need, the response and the usage patterns of child care in Canada. School-aged children are discussed but the data is largely dated. Useful for looking at child care from a historical perspective.

POLICY

Alexander, Nancy, P. (1986), "School-Age Child Care: Concerns and Challenges", Young Children, (November): 3-10. Recognizing the reality of latchkey children, the author argues that young children (5-6 years old) are significantly different than older children (11-12 years old) in terms of their ability to cope without adult supervision. Alexander notes that younger latchkey children experience intense loneliness, fear and stilted social development. Some partial responses to the problem have been: telephone hotlines for children to call regarding school work or just to talk (a sort of technological care-giver), check-in programs with neighbors, and making available instructional activities and materials. Without making any judgments regarding quality of care, she lists recreational programs, individual or clustered home-based care, school-based extended day care, and after-school programs run by outside agencies and employer.

Bates, Helene Blais (1984), "Day Care Standards in Canada", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-70 (Ottawa: Status of Women). One of a series of background papers prepared for the Task Force on Child Care. Bates's paper focuses on centre and family day care standards, licensing requirements, staff qualifications and regulatory bodies providing information on a province-by-province basis.

Blain, Christine (1985), "Government Spending on Child Care in Canada", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 166-231 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author looks at the financial support provided by the provinces/territories and Federal Government for child care. The impact of the level of support on families of different socio-economic groups is

also examined. Issues investigated include taxation schemes, the Canada Assistance Plan, subsidization, special needs children, etc. Provincial figures and summaries are given.

Chenier, Nancy Miller (1984), "Toward Universality: An Historical Overview of the Evolution of Education, Health Care, Day Care and Maternity Leave", in Series 2, Financing ChildCare: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-36 (Ottawa: Status of Women). This paper provides a historical summary of four related social services (education, health, day care and maternity leave) from 1867-1967.

(The) Childcare Resource and Research Unit (1987-88), Comprehensive, Childcare Information Sheets 1-31 (Toronto Ont: Childcare Resource and Research, University of Toronto). Concise descriptions of a number of child care issues and summaries of the status of child care in the provinces and territories. Topics covered include regulations, subsidies, funding and work-related care.

Cohen, Bronwen (1988), Caring for Children: Services and Policies for Childcare and Equal Opportunities in the United Kingdom (London: Commission of the European Communities). A detailed comprehensive report on the status of child care services and equal employment opportunities for women in the United Kingdom, the report could serve as a model for other countries. Based on hard data and recent historical trends, Cohen makes a number of recommendations to government in these areas. School-aged child care is discussed explicitly and not merely implied under a general discussion of childcare.

Corsini, David A.; Wisensale, Steven and Caruso, Grace-Ann (1988). "Family Day Care: System Issues and Regulatory Models", Young Children, 43 (6): 17-23. The authors look at unlicensed family day care (eg. by grandparents or neighbors) in the United States where almost all providers of this type are not regulated. Specifically, six regulatory and support models are examined, suggestions for further research in this area are made and policy implications are offered.

DPA Group (1984), "National Day Care Costing Model", in Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 37-82 (Ottawa: Status of Women). This report details the construction of a national child care costing model. The DPA Group estimates the cost of the current (1984) child care system in Canada and also, provides forecasts of the costs of a national system of care. School-aged children (6-12 years) are treated as a separate group.

Kahn, Alfred J. and Kamerman, Sheila B. (1987), Child Care: Facing the Hard Choices (Dover, MA: Auburn House). The authors examine child care in the United States against the recent and current socio-political climate prevailing in that country. They deal with issues such as privatization, the role of schools as providers of care, employer-sponsored child care and family day care. They make extensive use of case studies to demonstrate points and support arguments.

Kamerman, Sheila B. and Khan, Alfred J. (1981), Child Care, Family Benefits, and Working Parents: A Study in Comparative Policy, (New York, NY: Columbia University Press). Extensive data on various policies related to children, child care, costs and the family are presented for six countries - the United States, France, Sweden, West Germany, East Germany and Hungary. In addition, the authors made

site visits in each country, speaking with government officials and agency personnel. The end result is a relatively comprehensive look at child care in each country including their underlying philosophies, strengths and weaknesses.

Lero, Donna S. and Kyle, Irene (1985), "Day Care Quality: Its Definition and Implementation", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 85-149 (Ottawa: Status of Women). Lero and Kyle examine the difficult question of defining quality in child care. To arrive at a working definition of quality, they examine the literature, research and various perspectives on child care. They propose the following definition, "Quality child care is care provided by knowledgeable, committed and sensitive caregivers in a milieu that supports their efforts to provide an optimal environment designed to foster children's well-being, development and competence. Care provided in this manner explicitly recognizes the needs of parents for caregiving that supports and strengthens their child-raring efforts through effective and informative communication and mutual respect".

Lewis, Anne C. (1985), "Will Uncle Sam Help Mind the Children?", PHI Delta Kappan, 66 (7): 459-460. A brief outline of the Federal policies affecting child care in the United States. Some key legislation is cited.

Lindner, Eileen W.; Mattis, Mary C. and Rogers, June R. (1983), When Churches Mind the Children (Ypsilanti, MI: The High/Scope Press). An interesting perspective on parochial child care. Although older school-aged children are not explicitly dealt with, the book discusses children up to five years of age. The study was undertaken by the National (U.S.) Council of Churches and its member communions to develop an informed advocacy position on child care. They

address six issues: 1) development of a statement of policy and purpose; 2) network development; 3) coalitions with other concerned groups; 4) further study of questions unanswered and newly raised; 5) provision of technical assistance; and 6) specific needs for program resources.
* Non-school-based/church operated/urban-rural unspecified.

McElligott, Arlene F. and McElligott, Joseph P. (1986), Extension Program: The Catholic Elementary School. A "7 to 6" School for "9 to 5" Parents (Washington, DC: National Catholic Education Association). ED 267 928. A report outlining the need for Catholic school-aged child care. The topics covered are the same as what one would find in a secular discussion but with the additional parochial consideration taken into account.

McNairy, Marion R. (1984), "School-Age Child Care: Program and Policy Issues", Educational Horizons, 62 (2): 64-67. The idea of custodial care is dispensed with quickly and the discussion focuses on developmental school-aged child care programs. Three models are presented: 1) child care as an extension of the school program, 2) child care not an extension of the school day because it is too restrictive and 3) where academic skills are integrated with other activities. Staffing issues as they relate to the three models are presented. Also, facility options are discussed and school-based programs are favored because they eliminate the need for transportation, use available resources, and encourage partnership between community agencies and schools.

Melizzi, Mary Ann and Yawkey, Thomas D. (1984), "School-Age Child Care - Considerations for Preservice Educators", Educational Horizons, 62 (3): 104-105. A useful perspective to take on an issue that is not well covered in the literature. However, the article is much too brief to accomplish anything but introduce the issue of educating the school-aged child care educator.

Mitchell, Stephanie (1989), "School Age Child Care: An Exploration of Evaluation Utilization" (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, March, 1989). A paper in which the author details a number of ways in which a school system (Portland, Oregon) was able to use the information from an evaluation of school-aged child care programs. Mitchell believes that a commitment from policy makers to use evaluation findings is essential.

* School-based/non-profit, operator unspecified/
urban-rural unspecified.

Posilkin, Robert S. (1980), "Day-Care Programs are Optimal Joint Tenants", PHI Delta Kappan, (December): 285. This brief report argues for the locating of child care programs in schools. Posilkin cites several reasons: 1) the space is designed for children, 2) environmental continuity for the children, 3) lower costs, 4) offset declining enrollment.

Power, Delia J. and Brown, Mona G. (1984), "Child Care and Taxation in Canada: Who Pays?", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 38-84 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The authors give a detailed analysis of the ways in which the Income Tax Act affects child care users. An argument is made for allowing a tax deduction for child care expenses.

Rose-Lizee, Ruth (1985), "A proposal to Cost-Share Operating and Start-Up Grants to Day Care Centres", Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 235-267 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The purpose of this paper is to estimate for a ten-year period, the cost of a proposal for the Federal government to cost-

share two new types of grants; flat-rate operating grants and start-up grants to licensed, non-profit day care spaces. In addition, a proposal to revise the Canada Assistance Plan which provides subsidies to low-income families is offered.

Sandford, Barbara (nd), Coordinated Housing and Child Care Development: A Review of the Literature and the State of the Art (Toronto: Direction 2000). A rather superficial cross-cultural look at child care philosophies. Sandford identifies three types of family policies; those with explicit comprehensive family policies such as France, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Norway and Sweden; countries with explicit but less comprehensive policies such as Austria, the Federal Republic of Germany, Poland, Finland and Denmark; and countries with implicit reluctant policies such as the United Kingdom, Israel, the United States and Canada. Part of the discussion for the Canadian case focuses on the inclusion of child care in housing initiatives.

Seligson, Michelle (1986), "Child Care for the School-Age Child". PHI Delta Kappan, (May): 637-640. A concise discussion of the need for school-aged care and the schools' increasing awareness and response to the situation. A number of issues requiring resolution are introduced as well, eg. if programs include an educational component, will they only be available to children who require care?

Stotsky, Karen (1985), "An Overview of Some Federal-Provincial Fiscal Arrangements and Proposed Options for Financing a System of Child Care in Canada", Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 83-103 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author looks at Federal-Provincial fiscal arrangements where federal contributions are made to programs which fall under provincial jurisdictions. The report concludes by offering options for the financing of a child care system.

Thomson, Tamra L. (1985a), "Enforcement of Provincial Day Care Standards", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 71-84 (Ottawa: Status of Women). The author provides a brief description of Provincial Statutes governing child care in each Province. In addition, she lists responsible bodies and methods of enforcement.

Thomson, Tamara L. (1985b), "Municipal Initiatives in Child Care", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 151-165 (Ottawa: Status of Women). In examining the role of municipalities in providing child care Thomson finds that local governments are often the provider of last resort. Provinces tend to delegate responsibilities to municipalities because the latter knows the needs of the community but often the monetary support from the province is inadequate. Thomson sees the municipalities as filling the gaps left by private operators. Some data for Ontario are presented.

Tienhaara, Nancy (1985), "Job Creation in the Child Care Industry", in Series 2, Financing Child Care: Future Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 104-234, (Ottawa: Status of Women). Tienhaara examines the current models used by the Federal Government to estimate the number of jobs created in the child care field and concludes that they are inappropriate for dealing with an industry as small as this one with its unique characteristics. She postulates a new model based on supply, demand and government funding.

Townson, Monica (1985a), "Financing Child Care Through the Canada Assistance Plan", in Series 1, Financing Child Care: Current Arrangements, Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 1-37 (Ottawa: Status of Women). Townson looks at the question of funding child care services through the Canada Assistance Plan (CAP). She includes Federal-Provincial cost-sharing under CAP, and problems and policy issues raised by the difficulties experienced under the Canada Assistance Plan. In addition, Townson describes the different ways the Provinces use CAP. She concludes that CAP is not able to meet the needs of low-income families for child care.

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Vaughn, Jenny (1987), "Free Spirits", Child Education, 64 (4): 18-20. One of a series of short articles on international early childhood and primary education. This article purports to be a report on Canada but in fact, focuses exclusively on Toronto.

Warger, Cynthia, ed. (1988), A Resource Guide to Public School Early Childhood Programs (Alexandra, Va: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development). The editor has collected a number of articles on early childhood education (ie. up to and including 5 year olds). They range from a broad overview of what is currently happening in the United States to papers dealing with more specific aspects of early childhood education such as quality issues, kindergarten as a compensatory intervention, and public school involvement.

Zigler, Edward and Ennis, Pamela (1988), "Child Care: A New Role for Tomorrow's Schools", Principal, (September): 10-13. The authors advocate an additional role for the schools, namely, taking responsibility for much more than children's academic development. They envision the schools as providing a range of child care services, encouraging parent education and involvement, and developing a network for home-based care providers and an information and referral system for parents seeking child care.

* School-based/school board operator (?)/urban-rural unspecified.

UNLICENSED CARE

Chenier, Nancy Miller (1985), "The Informal Child Care Market: Public Policy for Private Homes", in Series 3, Child Care: Standards and Quality Report of the Task Force on Child Care, pp. 150-186 (Ottawa: Status of Women). One of a series of background papers prepared for the Task Force on Child Care. Chenier's paper focuses on informal child care primarily in Canada but internationally as well. The results of a literature survey regarding the beneficial or detrimental aspects of this form of care are inconclusive; and annotated bibliography is included.

Dowd, Frances A. (1988), "Latchkey Children in the Library", Children Today, 17 (6): 5-8. The author, a professional librarian, presents the issues and findings of a limited national (U.S.) survey on the increasing role of public libraries as providers of after-school child care. Dowd's recommendations include 1) changes to the library science curriculum to reflect this change in the library's role; 2) libraries should develop and publicize policies regarding services to this clientele; 3) librarians should become more actively involved in local child care groups; and 4) instituting pilot projects, demonstration projects and research.

Guerney, Louise and Moore, Leila, (1983), "Phonefriend: A Prevention-Oriented Service for Latchkey Children", Children Today, 12 (4): 5-10. The authors were involved with the needs assessment of self-care children in the State College Community of Pennsylvania. After the needs were established, it was decided to provide an after-school telephone service to the community. The article provides a description of the service including an analysis of logged calls.

Long, Thomas J. and Long, Lynette (1988), "Hotlines for Children: What Makes Them Effective", Children Today, 17 (2): 22-25. The authors present various models of telephone child care with guidelines and suggestions which have been successfully tried in programs throughout the United States. No research has been done on this type of care.

MacCarry, Bert (1989),"Helping Preschool Child Care Staff and Parents Do More with Stories and Related Activities: A Pilot Joint Venture Between a Florida Public Library and Local Child Care Centre", Young Children, 44 (2): 17-21. A report on the joint venture begun in 1986 between the Lee County Library System (Fort Myers, Florida) and seven child care centres operated by Lee County Child Care Inc. The program is seen as an intervention for 4 and 5 year old disadvantaged children. The report also presents a number of successful activities for programs.

Soto, Lourdes Diaz and Guerney, Louise (1984), "Latchkey Children Count on Phonefriend", Educational Horizons, 62 (3): 105. A brief report on a telephone service for latchkey children in the State College Community of Pennsylvania. Also, see Guerney and Moore (1983).

Ziemba, Judes; Roop, Kathleen and Wittenberg, Sally (1988), "A Magic-Mix: After-School Programs in a Nursing Home". Children Today, 17(6): 9-13. A report on two pilot projects in Massachusetts where ten to fifteen children from low-income, one-parent families are bussed after school to one of four local nursing homes. High school and college students coordinate activities. Programs are developed with input from residents of the homes, students and parents. Costs are absorbed by the schools and the nursing homes. Parents pick up their children from the homes after work. Anecdotal evidence attests to the success of the program. It is not clear if the programs are licensed.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND LITERATURE REVIEWS

ERIC Clearinghouse on Early Childhood Education (1979), Development and Education of Children Outside the United States, (Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Early Childhood Education). A somewhat dated annotated bibliography of journal articles, books and reports from various international sources. Interesting from a contemporary historical perspective.

Friendly, Martha (1987), "School-Age Childcare Survey: Literature Review". (Manuscript). A cross-cultural comparison of school-aged child care in the Soviet Union, Sweden, France and Canada. In particular, the review focuses on the Canadian response to the need for school-aged child care. In addition, the author notes that there are "important gaps in our knowledge about care outside of regular school hours for young school-aged children in the areas of need, effects, models, and program activities and curriculum" especially compared to the literature devoted to preschool child care and related family and policy issues.
* Non-school-based/community agency operator/urban.

Howes, Carollee (1988). Keeping Current in Child Research, An Annotated Bibliography, (Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children). This document is divided into two sections. The first contains references to material which addressed the kinds of research questions prevalent prior to 1980, eg. is child care harmful and can child care serve as an intervention for children? The second section summarizes research items which speak to more recent concerns, eg. what distinguishes good from poor quality care and what is the relation between family factors and child care? The largest missing piece is "there are, however noticeable gaps in this research. For example, no

studies have examined quality indicators in school-age programs. The few studies that exist are almost impossible to interpret because researchers have not controlled the quality of child care examined and because there is little agreement on the upper age limit of the need for care". Nevertheless, the bibliography efficiently sums up and organizes a large number of research materials, several of which are relevant to school-aged child care.

Pence, Alan R. (1985), "A Bibliography of Canadian Day Care Research", in Series 6, Report of the Task Force on Child Care (Ottawa: Status of Women). One of a series of studies commissioned by the Task Force on Child Care. A cross-section of Canadian resources are represented including government reports, articles, theses, academic studies and advocacy group papers. Not annotated or categorized.

Ramey, Craig T.; Dorval, Bruce and Baker-Ward, Lynne (1983), "Group Day Care and Socially Disadvantaged Families: Effects on the Child and the Family", Advances in Early Education and Day Care, 3: 69-106. A literature review of materials which look at day care as a compensatory intervention. Although the emphasis is on preschool, there is enough of a more general nature to make it of interest to anyone looking at older children. Also, some studies include the youngest school-aged children as subjects.

Rothenberg, Dianne (1981), An International Bibliography of ERIC Resources: Elementary and Early Education, (Champaign, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education). Although the majority of items listed here are related to preschool and early childhood education a few references include the lower school-aged categories. International sources are represented.

Willis, Tricia and Friendly, Martha (1987), Childcare in Canada: Selected Childcare Topics, an Annotated Bibliography (Toronto: The Childcare Resource and Research Unit, The Centre for Urban and Community Studies). Not devoted solely to school-aged child care but a thoroughly annotated bibliography of well selected Canadian documents, including government reports, papers and legislation, books and journal articles. The contents are categorized under fourteen topics and four geographic jurisdictions.

Younger, Carolyn T.; Pietropaolo, Guiliana and Godkewitsch, Elsbeth (1975), Paper #1, Family Day Care: An Annotated Bibliography (Toronto: Project Child Care, Community Day Care Coalition and the Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto). Somewhat dated annotated bibliography of journal articles, books and reports from various international sources. Interesting from a contemporary historical perspective.

GLOSSARY FOR ABBREVIATIONS

ASCD ECE	Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Early Childhood Education (USA)
CSS	Certificate of Social Services (United Kingdom)
DHSS	Department of Health and Social Security (United Kingdom)
FRG	Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany)
GDR	German Democratic Republic of (East Germany)
LA	Local Authority (United Kingdom)
LEA	Local Educational Authority (United Kingdom)
NCMA	National Childminders Association (United Kingdom)
NNEB	Nursery Nurse Examination Board (United Kingdom)
NOOSA	National Out of School Alliance (United Kingdom)
SACC	School Age Child Care Project (Wellesley College, USA)
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